THE ART of WRITING & SPEAKING the ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SHERWIN CODY

DICTIONARY of ERRORS

THE ART of WRITING & SPEAKING The ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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The Art of Writing and Speaking the English Language

A DICTIONARY OF ERRORS

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PREFACE

This is a book for study rather than a reference book. Compilers of "Words often Mispronounced," "Words often Misused," etc., make the mistake of putting in so much that the book is too bulky for study, though as a reference book it is of course very incomplete. The only reference book worth having is a good dictionary, which is complete and authoritative. In a book of this kind the student wants something small, simple, stimulating, and helpful. I sincerely trust this Dictionary of Errors may be found to be all these. It is my opinion that any faithful student can master the entire book, and having mastered it will be able to avoid all important slips commonly made either by the uneducated or the educated. The book is intended primarily for the well educated person, however.

As errors of grammar are innumerable, it is important to impress the principle. I have therefore stated the rules commonly violated, and under each given first a correct example (so that this will be fixed prominently in the memory), and then the violation.

In correcting errors of pronunciation I have used a greatly simplified system. Many people cannot tell how to pronounce a word by looking it up in

the dictionary. In any case, the multiplicity of marks distracts the attention so that the vital point is often missed. I have concentrated attention completely upon the weak point in ordinary pronunciation, leaving all other points to the instinct. If any one wants the full panoply of diacritical marks, he may easily refer to the dictionary. While my list is not so long as some, I think it as long as any one is likely to study and master, and so complete that if it is fully mastered a person's pronunciation will be far more accurate than that of the average college-bred man or woman. In cases of words on which authorities differ, I have tried to give both authorized pronunciations, indicating which is preferred, if there is any preference. When the pronunciation of words depends on their meaning, I have used them in short sentences or phrases, which is far more effective than giving definitions.

The list of words misspelled I hope will be helpful. Any one who can spell all those words with uniform accuracy will be a first-rate speller.

In the principal department, that of the Use of Words, I have tried to lead the student to a nicer discrimination in the meanings and values of words in common use, and to avoid making a pedantic prig of him. There is a vast amount of rubbish afloat about good and bad usage, and I know no class of pedants more disagreeable than those who set up to correct the English of everybody else. He is a wise

man who knows how to let well enough alone, and escape the reputation of being a carping fault-finder. If there is anything I wish to avoid, it is this; but I know that I shall be, as I have often been in the past, the victim of these "know-it-alls". My test of the worth of a correction is whether the person corrected spontaneously recognizes the improvement. If he doesn't I incline to think I haven't quite "hit it," and try again. I want to be a universal helper, not a universal fault-finder; I want to make language freer, more accurate, and more expressive, not stiffer, drier, and deader.

The "Rules for Capitalization and Punctuation" are in a form simple enough so that any every-day person can master and use them.

SHERWIN CODY.

ERRORS OF GRAMMAR

Pronouns.

1. *The verbs "to be," "seem," "become," "appear," are followed by the subjective case, since they indicate that the predicate noun or pronoun is the same as the subject.*

It is I (not, "It is me"); It is he (not, "It is him"); It is they (not, "It is them"); It is she (not, "It is her").

2. *The object of a preposition must be in the objective case.*

Between you and me (not, "Between you and I"); It is a matter for you or him (not, "he").

Whom will the paper be read by? (Not, "Who will the paper be read by?" for the relative pronoun is governed by the preposition at the end of the sentence.)

3. *The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.*

Let you and me go to the postoffice (not, "Let's you and I go," for this is equivalent to "Let us you and I go," in which "us" is superfluous and "I" in the wrong case).

4. *When a pronoun follows a subordinating conjunction such as "as", "than", etc., it is in the subjective case, if a verb is implied of which it should be the subject; but if the implied verb is such that*

the pronoun should be its object, the pronoun is in the objective case. Always fill in the verb and see what the case should be.

There is no one who can run so fast as he (can); No one there was handsomer than he (was); She liked no one better than (she liked) him. In "Than whom none higher sat," "than" is a preposition, not a conjunction, since its place before the verb prevents a verb from being implied after it. We can't go back and put in implied verbs.

5. *The predicate complement of an infinitive, the subject of which is in the objective case, must also be in the objective case.*

They believed it to be him (not, "He").

6. *Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in person and number.*

Each of them has his own way of doing it (not, "their own way"); The company ordered its men to leave (not, "their men"); One likes to have one's own way, *or* his own way (not, "their own way"); Everybody does as he likes (not, "as they like"); Every man, woman, and child bowed his head (not, "their heads").

I, who am above you, sacrifice myself for you (not, "who are above you," for "who" is in the first person to agree with "I"); Thou, who art my shield, and my protector, wilt never fail me ("who" is second person).

7. *Two singular nouns connected by "and" form a plural antecedent, but two singular nouns connected by "or" form a singular antecedent.*

Jane and Mary will be found at their home in

the country, where they have gone for their vacations; Is it Jane or Mary who cut her thumb?

If the antecedents are one masculine and one feminine and must be referred to in the singular, a masculine pronoun must be used.

Is it John or Mary who stands at the head of his class? (not, "their class"); Every man, woman, and child raised his voice against the atrocious act (not, "their voice"); Either Jenny, or John, or Molly has lost his pocketbook, for here it is (not, "lost their pocketbook").

This is one of the awkward necessities of the English language.

Verbs.

1. *Every sentence must have a proper asserting verb.*

He was a magnificent man. Broad-shouldered, straight as an arrow, with bright black eyes, a man who pierced you with his glance or crushed you with his contempt, who liked his little joke and his little glass. (The verb has been forgotten in this final sentence. Be sure when you are excited you do not forget your verb.)

When the verb is implied it is usual to place an exclamation point at the end of the sentence.

We drove as hard as we could, but we missed the train. A day lost! Five days to be made up on our journey! I knew it couldn't be done.

2. *Every verb must agree with its subject in person and number. Two singular subjects connected by "and" form a plural; two singular subjects connected by "or" form a singular subject;*

when subjects are connected by "or", the verb agrees with the nearest.

Every one of those men has (not, "have," since the subject is "one", not "men", which is governed by the preposition "of") a pickax; Each of the thousand tiny points of life is as clear as a star (not, "are," since the subject is "each" and intervening plurals make no difference with the verb); Jack and I are going to the ball; Jack or I am going to the ball; Jack or you are on the bill, I forget which it is; The woman or the tiger comes out, but which Stockton could not tell.

3. *Collective subjects are to be treated as singular or plural according as the writer has in mind the various individuals as a group or as a consolidated body.*

The company is going to raise our pay; The factory says it hasn't got it; An army of men were filling the square, *or* An army of men was filling the square (according as you think of the single body composing an army, or use "army" as meaning a great many men); An army is encamped in the plain (here there is no doubt that "army" is singular).

A few men are running across the campus ("a few" is always plural); A number of men are running across the campus (the idea is clearly plural, though some critics insist that "a number" must be singular); A certain number of men is selected each year (here the reference seems to be more clearly to the singular idea of one number); A

large number of us are going to the picnic (clearly plural).

None of those women are dressed for a shower; None of the critics of our day is equal to Sainte Beuve. ("None" is singular or plural according as it is intended to suggest the last group of objects or persons, or the last individual. This seems a fine distinction, for if you take away several you have no more left than if you take away one. It is true also that absence of individuals is neither singular nor plural. The best usage justifies "none" as both singular and plural, and we may perhaps decide which by observing whether the comparison in the predicate is to several or to one only. Some writers maintain that "none"—*no one*—is always singular, just as "a number" is always singular.)

In the use of firm names there is much confusion in regard to the verb, whether it should be singular or plural. "Montgomery Ward & Co." seems to be plural, and "The Montgomery Ward Co." seems to be singular. "The Company", "the Factory", etc., should always be treated as singular, though there is a suggestion of a plural idea in all the people engaged in doing the work of the company, various persons being responsible, though it is impossible to tell just who it is. In reality it is the company as a corporate unit that acts through its various servants, so though many persons labor, it is the company that acts. Firm names, however, seem to imply clearly a limited number of partners, and the plural is used as if we said

the partners act in every act of every employee.

Two nouns in the singular which really together stand for one idea may be followed by a singular verb, as "Love and beauty is his theme through the book."

4. *The third person singular indicative of a verb ends in s or es, and this s should appear in any contraction of which the verb is a part. "Do not" is contracted to "don't", but "does not" is contracted to "doesn't".*

He doesn't like my style (not "He don't like"); It doesn't do to speak too freely (not, "It don't do to speak too freely").

"Am not" has no contraction. "Aren't I?" is as wrong as "I are". "Ain't" is not a proper English word. We must say "Am I not?" in full, though it sounds pedantic.

5. *The past participle should never be used as an independent verb.*

He began to do it (not, "He begun to do it"); He drank all the water (not, "He drunk all the water"); He saw the man do it (not, "He seen the man do it"); He did the job (not, "He done the job"); We may say either, "He sang" or "He sung", "He sank" or "He sunk", "He sprang" or "He sprung", "He swam" or "He swum".

6. *The past tense of the verb should never be used after an auxiliary, as a participle.*

He had awaked (not, "He had awoke"); He has borne up well (not, "He has bore up well"); He has begun to see it (not, "He has began to see it"); It has blown away (not, "It has blew away"); The cart has broken down (not, "Has

broke down"); The cock has crowed (not, "Has crew"); The man has done it (not, "Has did it"); He has driven the cattle in (not, "He has drove"); He has drunk all the water (not, "He has drank"); The pig has eaten the cake (not, "Has eat," nor "Has ate"); The bird has flown away (not, "Has flew"); She has given me a pin (not, "She has gave"); The cat has gone out (not, "Has went out"); The corn has grown tall (not, "Has grew"); I have seen it (not, "I have saw it"); The penny was shaken out (not, "was shook out"); She has sung the old song (not, "She has sang"); The ship has sunk, (not, "Has sank"); He had not spoken (not, "He had not spoke"); A wind has sprung up (not, "Has sprang up"); The thief has stolen a watch (not, "Has stole a watch"); He has sworn an oath (not, "He has swore an oath"); The man had swum over the river (not, "Has swam over the river"); The book was taken (not, "Was took"); The ball was thrown over the fence (not, "Was threw over the fence"); That dress has worn well (not, "That dress has wore well"); The letter was written last week (not, "Was wrote"). "Gotten" and "ridden" are considered obsolete by some critics, and so not to be used, and there is no authority for "catched", "teached", "knowed". We may say either, "He has forgot his lesson", or "Has forgotten it".

7. *The past tense is required with an adverb or phrase which fixes a definite time wholly in the past, the perfect tense with an adverb or phrase which indicates time extending up to the present.*

He wrote to me yesterday (not, "He has written to me yesterday"); I saw him in 1901 (not, "I have seen him in 1901"); I saw him before I saw you (not "I have seen him before I saw you"); I was told after I left you (not, "I have been told after I left you"; but "I have been told since I left you" is correct); I haven't heard from him yet (not, I didn't hear from him yet"); I have heard since I saw you (not, "I heard since I saw you"); He has done it already (not, "He did it already"); He hasn't spoken to me about it so far (not, "He didn't speak to me about it so far").

8. *Verbs in subordinate sentences and phrases should have the tense which accurately represents the time intended with reference to the principal verb.*

It had happened before I saw him (not, "It had happened before I had seen him"); I should like to have done it (not, "I should have liked to have done it"); After we had visited London, we returned home (not, "After we visited London"); From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to be a man of letters (not, "To have been a man of letters"); It required so much care that I thought I should have lost it before I had reached home (not, "Before I reached home"); His seasickness was so great that I often feared he would die before our arrival (not, "He would have died"); The doctor in his lecture said fever always produces thirst (not, "Produced thirst").

Notice that universal truths, as true in the

present as in the past, require the present tense.

9. *The subjunctive mode indicates supposed cases and wishes, not cases of simple fact.*

Wishes—

Would I were an angel!

I wish I were at home.

Supposed cases—

If he were here, I should be happy; If it be so, well and good; Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him; Except he repent, he shall surely die; Reprove not a scorner, lest he hate thee; The grasshoppers formed a huge cloud, as it were.

Matters of fact—

If Anna is here, she will be sure to find me; If Anna was on the train, he must have seen her; Unless he has done it, there will be no punishment.

10. *A participle, in its capacity of verb, must have a logical subject, which is usually the main subject of the sentence, and this must not be too remotely implied or too far removed.*

Having done all he could, he ordered the freight agent to send the box ahead (not, "Having done all he could, the box was ordered sent ahead"); While sitting on my doorstep, I caught sight of a beautiful butterfly (not, "While sitting on my doorstep, a beautiful butterfly caught my eye"); Having done all you can, leave the matter in the hands of Providence (not, "Having done all you can, Providence may be trusted to do the rest"); By doing so he will clear the matter up (not, "By doing so the matter will be cleared up

by him"); On weighing the sugar we found a shortage (not, "On weighing up the sugar, a shortage was found"); Referring to your letter of yesterday, we would say that the catalogue has been sent (not, "Referring to your letter, the catalogue has been sent").

11. *When a participle used as a verbal noun follows a preposition and its logical subject is expressed, that subject must be in the possessive case, not in the objective.*

I hardly knew what to make of that man's jumping over the fence (not "Of that man jumping over the fence"); I saw him doing it (here the object of "saw" is "him"); I approve his doing it (here the object of "approve" is "doing", and "approve of him doing it" would be wrong); What do you think of my going to town to-day (not, "What do you think of me going to town"); I heartily approve the church's acting now (not, "Of the church acting now").

12. *When an inanimate object would become a possessive, the verbal noun should give way to some other construction.*

Congress received a report on whether Washington Monument should be placed south of the White House (not, "On Washington Monument being placed south of the White House").

Nouns.

1. *When two possessives are coupled together, the sign of the possessive case must follow each if each possesses individually, but only the last if the two possess together.*

John and Mary's house now came in sight (house belongs to both together); I picked up somebody's hat, either Fanny's or Jenny's.

2. *Several words used as a name may have the possessive sign at the end.*

His grandfather cleaned the Duke of Wellington's boots; This was William the Conqueror's bible; We came to the captain of the guard's house.

3. *Only animate beings, and especially persons, are usually put in the possessive case. An inanimate object is personified by being put in the possessive.*

I was frightened at the length of that lesson (not, "At that lesson's length"); He was investigating the drainage system of Chicago (not, "Chicago's drainage system," for personification would be out of place here); He spoke of the fertility of the land (not "Of the land's fertility"). Exceptions: The day's work; The year's returns; Life's journeys; The sun's brightness; "For goodness' sake"; "Art for art's sake."

4. *When a verbal noun is preceded by "the" or "a" it must be followed by "of", and when followed by "of" it must be preceded by an article.*

The building of the ship (not, "The building the ship"); It is the using of it before "most" (not, "The using it before most"); I could not help doing it (not, "Doing of it," unless you say, "The doing of it").

5. *When a noun of general significance is preceded by a plural possessive pronoun, it remains*

singular even when the common quality applies to several persons or things.

We were having our fun (not "funs"); We took our part in the proceedings, each according to his own ability (not "our parts").

Adjectives.

1. *Comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives are to be formed by adding* er *and* est *unless the resulting word is awkward to pronounce, when the adverbs "more" and "most" are to be used.*

It was the most beautiful rose I ever saw (not, "The beautifulest"); I never saw a sweeter child (not, "A more sweet child").

2. *Such adjectives as "complete", "perfect", etc., do not admit of comparison, since they indicate an absolute quality.*

He has the most nearly complete collection of butterflies in the country (not, "The most complete"); This apple is the most nearly perfect one I ever saw (not, "The most perfect one"); His drawing is more nearly circular than yours (not, "More circular").

3. *Adjective pronouns must agree in number with the nouns they modify.*

I do not like that kind of apples (not, "Those kind of apples"); You have been playing these two hours (not, "This two hours"); I can't tolerate that sort of people (not, "I can't tolerate those sort of people"); Whether he accomplished it by this means or not, I do not know (not, "By these means").

4. *When two objects are spoken of, the comparative degree is to be used, when more than two, the superlative.*

He was the wealthier man of the two (not, "The wealthiest"); She was the youngest of the three sisters (not, "The younger of the three sisters").

Adverbs.

1. *Any word which modifies a verb (or participle), adjective, or other adverb, must be an adverb and not an adjective.*

He does his work very well (not "Very good"); He came here previously to seeing you (not, "Previous to seeing you"); He acted conformably with the rules laid down (not, "Conformable with the rules laid down"); He was exceedingly kind to me (not, "Exceeding kind to me"); He came agreeably to his promise (not, "Agreeable to his promise"); He could not have acted more nobly (not, "Nobler than he did").

2. *If a word in the predicate really qualifies the meaning of the subject of the sentence, not the action of the verb, it is to be treated as a predicate adjective, not an adverb.*

He feels bad about it (not, "He feels badly," unless you mean that the feeling is done in a bad manner); He looked white (not, "He looked whitely"); He appeared faint (not, "He appeared faintly"); The coat felt warm (not, "Felt warmly"); The coffee smells good (not, "Smells well"); The carriage rides easy (not, "Rides easily"); That piano sounds poor (not, "Sounds poorly"); The milk tastes sour (not, "Tastes sourly"); The

general stood firm (not, "Firmly"); The wind blows cold (not "Blows coldly"); The shutters are painted green (not, "Are painted greenly").

3. *When adjectives are placed before verbals (participles) they should combine with them by means of a hyphen; otherwise an adverb must be used.*

He was a good-looking boy; He was a hard-headed man; He was a well dressed fellow (adverb, no hyphen); It was a bad-tasting apple; It is a cold-blowing wind; He opened the green-painted shutters; This is a warm-feeling coat.

Observe that these adjective compounds correspond with the adverbial-predicate adjectives above. Some call these predicate adjectives flat adverbs.

4. *Two negatives make an affirmative in English.*

I don't do anything of the kind (not, "I don't do nothing of the kind"); He need not, and does not, lessen his operations on my account (not, "Nor does not"); I have received no information, either from him or his friends (not, "Neither from him nor his friends"); He was not unable to carry out his plan (that is, he was able); His language, though inelegant, is not ungrammatical (that is, it is grammatical).

5. *Adverbs and adjectives should be placed close to the words they modify, else the meaning may be changed.*

Lost by a gentleman, a Scotch terrier with his ears cut close (not, "Lost, a Scotch terrier, by a gentleman, with his ears cut close"); He could see his way only by the help of a lantern (not,

"He could only see his way"); I mentioned only one of the charges to him (not, "I only mentioned one of the charges to him"); I remember scarcely ever to have had a harder time of it (not, "I scarcely ever remember").

6. *The comparative and superlative degrees of adverbs in* ly *are formed by use of "more" and "most". Other adverbs may be compared by adding* er *and* est.

Gently, more gently, most gently; Often, oftener, oftenest; Happily, more happily, most happily; Badly, worse, worst ("worser" is a vulgarism).

Conjunctions and Prepositions.

1. *A preposition introduces a noun or pronoun, a conjunction introduces a subordinate sentence; a noun or pronoun introduced by a preposition is in the objective case, while a noun or pronoun following a conjunction is the subject of an implied verb and must be in the subjective case.*

I am a little older than he (not, "Than him"); He always acts like me (not, "Like I do"); He always acts as I (not, "As me").

2. *When two words connected by a conjunction are such as to require different prepositions after them, both prepositions must be given.*

He has made alterations in the work and additions to it (not, "He has made alterations and additions to the work"); You may use stories and anecdotes, and ought to do so (not, "You may and ought to use stories and anecdotes"); Compare their poverty with what they might possess, and ought to (not, "What they might

and ought to possess"); He entered without seeing her or being seen by her (not, "Without seeing or being seen by her").

3. *Do not connect different constructions by a co-ordinate conjunction.*

Neither have we forgot his past, nor do we despair of his present (not, "Neither have we forgot his past, nor despair of his present"); Facts too well known and too obvious to be insisted on (not, "Too well known and obvious to be insisted on"); Every man of taste, who possesses an elevated mind, ought to feel grateful to the promoters of this exposition (not, "Every man of taste, and possessing an elevated mind"); They very seldom trouble themselves with inquiries, or with making useful observations (not, "With inquiries, or making useful observations").

4. *A conjunction should not be used with a relative pronoun or adverb, since such pronoun or adverb is itself conjunctive, unless there are two such pronouns or adverbs to be joined.*

The distinguishing excellence of Virgil, which in my opinion he possesses beyond all poets (not, "And which in my opinion"); He left a son of a singular character, who behaved so ill he was put in prison (not, "And who behaved so ill").

ERRORS OF CAPITALIZATION.

1. A common noun used to designate a particular person or place should be capitalized.

The South (meaning southern part of the

United States), the West, the East, the Orient; the Colonel (referring familiarly to some particular person), the President (meaning the President of the United States), Congress (meaning the Congress of the United States), the Constitution (meaning the Constitution of the United States). Some capitalize "state" when it means one of the United States, but better not.

2. Occasionally a common noun may be capitalized for emphasis, and it is usual in billing, but it is wrong to capitalize the names of common goods in letter writing.

We will refer the matter to our corset department (not, "To our Corset Department"); We handle all kinds of ladies' jackets (not, "All kinds of Ladies' Jackets").

3. It is an error to write such proper names as Great Britain, the United Kingdom, etc., with small letters, as the newspapers often do.

4. The following abbreviations are always capitalized: All initials of proper nouns, initials of learned degrees, initials of titles, MS. (for manuscript), No. (for number), C. O. D. (for collect on delivery), D. V. (deo volente—God willing), E. & O. E. (errors and omissions excepted), and a few others. Initials of Latin words, like e. g., e. i., etc., are not capitalized.

5. A formal quotation (that is, one that is complete in itself), and likewise a formal statement, should begin with a capital letter.

He said to me, "This man owes me money and I will kill him"; (but) He said this man owed him money and he would kill him; He said this

man owed him money and he would "wring his neck till he was dead" before he would let him go.

It is a wise man who always follows the rule, Never spend a dollar before you have it to spend.

ERRORS OF PUNCTUATION.*

1. A period should be placed after an abbreviation but not after a contraction, in which the omitted letters should be indicated by an apostrophe.

MS., e. g., Feb.; Ass'n, B'ld'g, Bl'k. (These contractions when frequently used may be treated as abbreviations in ordinary letter writing, but not in careful literary compositions).

2. When a dependent clause is restrictive it should not be set off by a comma, but when it is merely explanatory it should be set off. This is easily tested by considering whether the meaning would be complete if a period were placed where you are thinking of putting a comma. If a period could be placed there and leave the meaning of the main clause sufficiently complete to make good sense, a comma is required; if a period would leave the main clause devoid of meaning, no comma should be used.

Did you see Jenny Jones, who was wearing a picture hat? (Here the meaning is

*Only points commonly misunderstood are noted here. For a summary of the rules of punctuation see Cody's "Grammar and Punctuation"

complete at the point where the comma is placed).

Did you see the man who knocked that woman down? (Here the sense is not complete at the end of "man", and if a period were placed there the preceding words would be nonsense).

3. Never use a comma unless it adds to the meaning, or makes it clearer.

When I get there I shall see what I can do. (No comma between "I" and "there" is required, because the preceding clause is so short no confusion is possible).

When I have told you again and again that I will not tolerate such conduct, why do you go on doing these things? (Here a comma is needed because the preceding clause is long and we should n't know when we got to the end of it were it not for the comma).

4. A comma is required before "and" when it connects two parts of a compound sentence if the meaning of the second part is a radical change from the meaning of the first part. This is especially true if the subject of the second part is different from the subject of the first part; but even if the subject does not change, a comma is often required and erroneously omitted.

I told him I did n't like the way he was going on, and then I explained to him just what the effect of his conduct would be on the other employees.

5. "But" is often preceded by a comma rather than by a semi-colon, though many think that "but" is generally, if not always, to be preceded by a semi-colon.

John came over and talked to me for a long time, but I could n't see my way to granting his request.

We have fought hard and won; but for all that I am willing to yield if it is for the good of the party.

In such cases we must judge how much the sense changes in the second part of the sentence. If the change is slight, use a comma, if decided, use a semi-colon. A semi-colon may be used before "and"" if the change of meaning is very decided.

6. A hyphen is always to be used when an adjective precedes and modifies a verbal, and usually when a noun unites with a verbal to form a single noun or adjective.

Good-looking, *but* finely built (no hyphen);
Man-eating, letter-writing, cotton-growing;
But, business letter writing, short story writing (no hyphen).

ERRORS IN LETTER WRITING

Business Letters.

It is not worth while to try to arrange these in alphabetical order, so I will set down my points as they occur to me, giving each a number.

1. A letter should *always* be dated, and if the address is not printed, it should be written by preference at the upper right hand corner of the paper. It is not considered good style to place the address immediately after the signature except in giving an order for shipment.

2. The address and date line should never begin near the lefthand margin. It should begin at least one-third of the way across the page, and two or three lines may be used for it if necessary.

3. Care should be used to punctuate the date and address line correctly. Separate each item from the next by a comma, and place a period at the end; but do not put any comma between the month and day of the month ("Feb 15", "16th Jan.", and the like), or between the name of the street and the word "street" or the like, or between the number and the name of the street ("135 Jackson Boulevard", "623 Opera House Building", "6½ Jasmine Street"). Here

is a date and address line correctly placed and punctuated:

Room 561, 76 First St.,
Chicago, Ill., U. S. A.,
Jan. 3, 1905.

4. When the name of a street is a number and the house number immediately precedes it, the number of the street should be written out, as "76 First St.", though "119 W. 17th St." is all right because the "W." stands between the two numbers and prevents confusion. Some separate the numbers by a dash, but this is not the best usage. To separate them by a comma is wrong in this country, though the number is always set off by a comma from the name of the street in England.

5. It is not necessary to put "th" or "nd" or "st" after the day of the month, except in the body of a letter when numbers indicating days of months stand alone, as "the 6th inst."

6. In business letters it is usual always to place the address of the person written to at the head of the letter, beginning the name flush with the lefthand edge of the writing (which should be uniformly half an inch from the edge of the paper, so as to leave a blank margin). The address should follow the name, in one line if possible, and should be indented half an inch or more, the arrangement being more a matter of looks than anything else.

7. A title should always be placed before or after a name, as "Mr. John Jones" or "John Jones, Esq." (never "Mr. John Jones, Esq.").

"Messrs. Henry Harland & Co.", "Mrs. John D. Farrier", etc. When a corporation name begins with "the" no title need be used, but the "the" should always be inserted, as "The Macmillan Co.", "The Illinois Trust and Savings Bank", etc. Present American usage omits "Messrs." before all firm names.

8. A comma should be placed after the name, and if some corporation title is added, such as "President", this also should be followed by a comma.

9. Each item of the address of the person written to should be set off by a comma, but the same rules apply that were given in speaking of the address of the person writing. See No. 3.

10. It is most common to close the address with a period. This is the natural and easy way if the address ends with an abbreviation followed by a period, as—

Mr. John Jones, President,
The Continental Trust Co.,
Chicago, Ill.

11. The salutation should be placed flushed with the lefthand margin, or edge of the writing. It is a common error to indent this, as if it marked the beginning of a paragraph. Many ladies begin their letters—

Mr. Cody,
Dear Sir,—

Should be

Mr. Sherwin Cody,
Chicago.
Dear Sir:

The former indicates lack of knowledge of business usages. The address should always be given, and indented, and the salutation brought back to the margin.

12. The proper salutation for a purely business letter to a stranger is "Dear Sir" if but one person is addressed, "Gentlemen" after a firm name. "Dear Sirs" after a firm or corporation name is now antiquated, though formerly it had plenty of authority. When several individuals are addressed "Dear Sirs" seems the more appropriate form In addressing a woman, young or old, married or single, the only form to use is "Dear Madam". "Dear Miss" or "Dear Mlle." are not supported by good authority. While "Dear Madam" is not appropriate in writing to a very young girl, it is not supposed that a child will enter into correspondence; or if she does the stranger who answers her letter should not take it upon him to decide whether she is an infant or not, but treat her as if she were a grown woman. When the person written to is known to the writer as a young woman, and it is possible to abate the most extreme formality, it is best to follow "Dear" by the name of the lady, as "Dear Miss Blank". In writing to a young girl, we use her first name after "Miss", as "Dear Miss Ethel". It is more common to abate formality and write "Dear Mrs. Blank" when addressing a married woman than it is in addressing a man. We seldom see "Dear Mr. Blank" unless the writer wishes to indicate unusual friendliness.

13. While according to the strict rules it is not proper to place the name and address at the head of the letter when the salutation contains the name, still this custom is almost universal in business correspondence. Properly the name and address should go to the end of the letter in such a case, being placed flush with the lefthand margin, as when it is placed at the beginning.

14. "Dear Friend" at the beginning of a business letter is looked on as vulgar, and is not used by high-grade houses.

15. The salutation may be followed by a colon, a colon and a dash, or a comma and a dash. In this country a simple colon is looked on as the best usage, in England a comma and a dash is more common.

16. The body of the letter should begin as a paragraph, indented uniformly with all the other paragraphs. Beginning the body of the letter just below the end of the salutation, with an indention usually greater than that of a paragraph, is a style the present writer favored at one time, but it seems to have gone quite out of style. Present usage also favors indenting as a paragraph the address after the name of the person written to.

17. It is always desirable to make some reference to the letter which is being answered, referring to it by its date, but it is decidedly better to make this reference incidentally, not formally. Avoid all such stereotyped opening phrases as "Replying to your esteemed favor of the 16th inst.", "Answering your favor of even date", "Acknowledging your letter of the 17th ult.", etc.

Say rather "We desire to thank you for the suggestion contained in your letter of the 16th inst.", or "The goods ordered in your letter of Jan. 19 will be shipped at once", or "We regret that you did not find our last shipment satisfactory, as you state in your letter of the 17th just at hand." The variations should be as wide as the requirements of business, and no set form or series of forms should be used.

18. When several items are ordered in one letter, it is always desirable to place them in a list or column if possible, following each item with its number, size mark, and price if possible, even when the price is well known. Stating the price often saves mistakes, and is to be looked on as an important part of the description.

19. All paragraphs should be indented not over three quarters of an inch. Each fresh subject should have a fresh paragraph. It is a mistake to indent paragraphs either too little or too much.

20. **Words to be avoided in Business Letters.** All stereotyped words which are not used in talking should be avoided in letter writing. There is an idea that a certain peculiar jargon of letters is appropriate in business letters. The fact is, nothing injures business more than this system of words found only in business letters. The test of a word or phrase or method of expression should be, "Is it what I should say to my customer if I were talking to him instead of writing to him?"

Among these words to be tabooed are—

the same (used as a pronoun, as in "referrin to same");
said (as in "said list of goods", a legal phrase);
esteemed;
valued;
hereby, herewith (used excessively, though sometimes to be justified);
funds (for "money");
beg to advise;
beg to remain;
per (for "by");
attached (when there is no real "attachment", as in "list with prices attached");
hand you (for "inclose");
trusting (used excessively);
trusting this information may be entirely satisfactory (a phrase worked to death, and so deprived of meaning).

When you have finished a letter it is generally sufficient to stop and sign. Many think they must lug in some such conclusion as "Trusting this will be satisfactory, we beg to remain", or at any rate something in which "we remain" is a part. "Thanking you for your order, Very truly yours", is correct enough.

The complimentary close of a business letter is usually "Yours truly", "Truly yours", "Very truly yours", "Very truly", or the like. "Respectfully yours" is too stiff and antiquated to be used except when writing to a very dignified superior, as in applying for a position or the like. "Cordially yours" is the extreme of friendliness, appropriate when there is a personal rela-

tion between the writer and person written to, or when for business purposes such a friendliness is assumed. It would be inappropriate when a letter is signed by a corporation name. "Sincerely yours" should be reserved for letters of real friendship.

21. Notice that only the first word of the complimentary close is capitalized. This complimentary close should begin about a third of the way across the page, and the signature should begin below it, a little to the right, beginning at a point a little more than half way across the page from left to right. The signature should be followed by a period, the complimentary close by a comma.

22. The name should never be typewritten, except a corporation name, which should be followed by the initials of the individual writer, or by his full name preceded by "By" (not "per"). The name of an individual should either be written by hand or, in cases in which this is not possible, stamped with a rubber facsimile of handwriting. All contract letters should be carefully signed with ink, and corporation names (which are best typewritten) should be followed by the name of the individual written after "By".

23. When the name and address of the person written to have not been placed at the beginning of the letter, they should be placed at the close, on a line below the signature, beginning flush with the lefthand margin, the address being placed in a second line that is indented half an inch or more.

24. When a postscript is added, either to state something forgotten or with the deliberate purpose of making the thing spoken of attract attention, it should begin with an indentation, like a paragraph, "P. S." being followed immediately by what is to be said, and a second signature of initials placed at the end without any complimentary close.

Social Letters.

25. A letter written by hand is usually arranged so that the ink will dry without blotting. It may begin either on what is commonly thought of as the first page, passing to the third page, and then to the second page, beginning at the back and writing lengthwise of the paper, and finally passing to the fourth page. A more stylish and on the whole a better form is to begin on the fourth page, pass to the first (which will lie by the side of the fourth page when notepaper is spread out on a table, the inside pages down), and from the fourth page pass to the second page, writing lengthwise of the paper, beginning at the outer edge and writing from bottom to top of the page, and so on to the outer edge of the third page, which will be the bottom or end of the letter or written sheet.

26. The full address and date should always be placed at the top of the first page, as in business letters. The omission of this often causes annoyance. Even when it is familiar, it may not be remembered accurately, to say nothing of the strange lapses of memory to which we are all subject. The best way is to have the address

printed in very small type or engraved letters in the middle at the top of the first page, so that only the date has to be written. Only plain small Gothic or old English black letter type is appropriate on private letterheads.

27. The name and address of the person written to should never be placed at the head of a social letter, even one the most formal. Place it at the end, flush with the lefthand margin.

28. Begin the salutation flush with the left hand edge of the writing, leaving a narrow margin of blank paper. It is supposed that only paper of note size will be used. Business letter-size paper is not appropriate for social correspondence. The paper should be unruled. If necessary, black lines may be placed beneath to keep the writing straight.

29. The proper salutation for a social letter is "Dear Madam" or "Dear Sir" if the person addressed is unknown to the writer, or great formality is required. "My dear Madam" or "My dear Sir" is a little more effusive, but not any warmer. In writing to ordinary social acquaintances "Dear Mrs. Blank", "Dear Mr. Blank", or "Dear Miss Blank" is the usual and preferred form. "My dear" is a little more effusive. "Dear Friend" or "My dear Friend" is appropriate in writing to real friends, but "Friend Cody" or the like is regarded as countrified.

30. Notice that "dear" after "My" is never capitalized. "Friend", "mother", "brother", "sister", and the like should be capitalized when used in salutations.

31. Follow the salutation either with a colon or with a comma and a dash. A colon and a dash is not much used in social letters, though frequent in business letters.

32. In beginning the body of a social letter, start just as an ordinary paragraph. Starting below the end of the salutation, merely dropping down a line, is not now in favor.

33. Be careful to indent paragraphs not more than three quarters of an inch and not less than half an inch.

34. The usual complimentary close for a social letter is "Sincerely yours", "Cordially yours", "Most truly yours", or the like. One of these phrases or a variation of it is always safe and nearly always suitable and sufficient.

35. Ladies should always write "Mrs." or "Miss" before their names in parenthesis when writing to a stranger, or one who may not know their condition. For a woman to sign her initials only, as if she were a man, is almost ill-bred and impudent. In writing to acquaintances, married women living with their husbands should (according to the best usage) sign their husbands' names after "Mrs." in parenthesis. In writing to persons more than acquaintances, even friends, the full Christian name is written before the last name, and "Mrs." is omitted. To write "Mrs." or "Miss" before the name and not put it in parenthesis is considered extremely vulgar, and "Mrs. Davis" or the like, no parenthesis and no first name, is considered still more vulgar.

36. The date or address should not be written

at the end of the letter, near the lefthand margin—an affectation of some persons, who spell out all the numbers. This space should always be occupied by the name and address of the person written to.

37. Observe that "Miss" is not an abbreviation, and is not to be followed by a period.

38. A note so formal as to be written in the third person has neither salutation nor complimentary close, and great care must be taken to make sure no part of the note lapses into the first person. Such a note should always begin with the full name of the person writing, and immediately after some suitable verb should follow the full name of the person written to or simply "you" or "your" in case of a printed invitation, as "Mrs. John Lane begs to inform Mr. James Dwight that", etc. A phrase like "beg to inform" is allowable only in a note of such extreme formality as this.

ERRORS OF PRONUNCIATION

There are several classes of words which are habitually mispronounced by educated people in the United States. Most persons know of these errors, but habit is stronger than knowledge, or the person does not wish to appear priggish. There is much in the proverb, In Rome do as the Romans do.

Of these errors the following are the most noteworthy.

A has a sound between flat a as in "at" and Italian a as in "father", in certain words which the English commonly pronounce with the ah sound and Americans with the flat a sound. Of these words, the chief are—ask, askance (both a's), advance (second a), answer, bath, bask, Belfast, blasé, chance, can't, circumstance, clasp, class, chancery, command, contrast, dance, Diana, disaster, drama, enhance, façade, gasp, glass, glance, graft, mask, master, pass, path, piano, photograph, plaster, raft, sha'n't, slander, slant, staff, telegraph, waft. They include only certain words or syllables ending in sk, ff, ft, th, ss, sp, nce, nt, nd, but not all such words. The a is short and flat in—gland, hand, glad, clandestine, franchise, finance, marital, gas, dilettante, extant, etc. If one

is going to practise this nicety, it will be advisable to learn all the words individually, and be very sure not to sound some properly and some with the flat a, for nothing is more ridiculous than that, nor more common.

No one should pronounce calf, half, laugh, calm, psalm, except with the ah sound. The flat a in these words is distinctly vulgar.

Another common piece of carelessness especially among Americans is pronouncing long u like oo, as "noos" for news, "absoloot" for absolute, "choo" for chew, "doo" for dew, "dissoloot" for dissolute, "dook" for duke, "doobious" for dubious, "enthoosiasm" for enthusiasm, "ingenooity" for ingenuity, etc. There can be no affectation in giving the proper u sound in these words.

Still another careless habit is pronouncing ent as if it were spelled unt, as "governmunt" for government, "evidunt" for evident, "silunt" for silent, etc. This habit is distinctly vulgar.

Persons who are trying to be correct also make many mistakes through ignorance that a common person would not make at all. For instance, a long list of words ending in or, such as error, honor, fervor, splendor, etc., should be pronounced as if ending in er or ur, not or as in "for". Very few words of two syllables or more end with the or sound, and these are all legal terms.

The sound of ir is precisely like that of er, and girl is pronounced as if spelled "gerl". The sound of ur is distinguished from er and ir by

careful speakers, in that it is sounded farther down in the throat, as urge (as far down as possible), urn, burn, etc., while er is sounded higher up in the throat, with less rolling of the r. Some pronounce all one way, and others all the other way. The rolling of the r deep down in the throat is particularly objectionable.

It is usually a mistake to try to pronounce words as they are spelled and against instinct, as making the effort necessary to give the sound of or in error, honor, etc., the a sound in says, the long a sound in again, and the sound of a in mountain, certain, curtain, villain, etc. These words are properly pronounced "sez", "agen", "mountin", "certin", "curtin", "villin".

When people learned by what they heard and not what they read, there was little mispronunciation among those who mingled in the best society; but nowadays, when we learn more by reading than hearing, the best educated will mispronounce many words which they have seen often but seldom heard; and in good society there are many fads which mislead, as "intrest" for interest, and queer accenting of words.

Many words may properly be pronounced in two or more ways, and however we choose to pronounce them we should know that the other way is right, and so not condemn others for errors they have not made.

In general we may say "alpīne" or "alpĭn", "infantīle" or "infantĭl", etc., though the i sound is not quite that of e in "seen" nor i in "in"; but decided preference is now given to the short

form. In unaccented syllables all vowels are modified a little. We may say "bēstyal" or "bēs-ti-al", "gēnyal" or "gēn-i-al", but a decided preference is given to the two-syllable form. In the following "pref" in parenthesis means that the form given is greatly to be preferred, though there is some authority for the other form.

A few years ago the leading dictionaries condemned pronunciations now recognized by the Standard, the Century, or the new Murray (Oxford). For instance Webster taught us to say "lit-er-a-ture" (some people made it "literatoor"), not "literachoor". Now "choor" is recognized as the best pronunciation in such words as "nature", "picture", "literature", etc. There are still pronunciations used by the best-educated people which have no recognition in the dictionaries.

In the following the only marks used are the signs for the long and short vowels, as fāte, complēte, fīne, hōme, ūse; ăt, lĕt, fĭt, ŏn, fŭn. Vowels not marked are to be pronounced in the most natural way possible, no attention being paid to them. An accented vowel ending a syllable, as a in "de-mar-ca-tion", is nearly always long, and a syllable ending in a consonant is short, as "clen" in "de-clen-sion". When a ends a syllable it is naturally pronounced as in "ma-ma" unless marked long.

This list deserves to be thoroughly studied and every word mastered. The person who can pronounce all these words correctly will do far better than the average college-bred man.

WORDS OFTEN MISPRONOUNCED.

abdomen—accent do (pref.) rather than ab.

accent—We accent′ a word, but give it an ac′cent.

acclimate—accent clī, not ac.

accurate—ak-kū, not ak-er.

acoustics—a-koo′ now preferred to a-kow′.

adverse—accent ad (pref.) rather than verse.

advertisement—accent ver (pref.) rather than tise.

again—gen in U. S., gān in Eng.

against—genst.

aged—An a′ged person (two syllables); Properly aged (one syl.).

albumen—accent bu, not al.

algebra—not brā.

alias—accent ā, not li.

alien—yen, not i-en.

almond—l silent, ah′mund.

amenable—mē′, not men.

anchovy—accent chō (ch soft, not ko).

anti—don't make ti too long.

apricot—ā′pri, not ăp′ri.

Arab—ăr′ab, not ā′rab.

archangel—ark, not arch.

Arkansas—by law, ar′kan-saw.

Asia—ā′sh-a or ā′zh-a.

askance—accent kance, not ask.

asphalt—fălt, not fawlt.

aspirant—accent pīr (pref.) rather than as.

Atheneum—accent nē.

attaché—a-tă-shā′—slight accent on each syllable.

audacious—dā, not dash.

aunt—ahnt, not ănt.

awkward—ward, not ard (w sounded).

ay or **aye**, meaning "yes"—ī.

aye, meaning "always"—ā.

azure—ā′shur or ăzh′ur.

bade—băd, not bād.

ballet—băl′lā′.

Cenci—chen′che.

Beauchamp—bēch′m.

beau monde—bō maund.

because—caws, not cos.

bedstead—sted, not stid.

Beethoven—bā′tō-ven, or accent **to.**

been—bin in U. S., bēn in Eng.

behalf—hahf, not hăf.

beneath—th as in pith, not with.

bequeath—th as in with, not pith.

Berkeley—bahrk-le.

betroth—o long (pref.).

bicycle—accent bī, y short.

biennial—i long in bi.

Bingen—gen, not jen.

biography—i long in bi.

bitumen—bi-tu′men, not bit′u.

bivouac—biv′wak.

blackguard—blag′gard.

blatant—a long in bla, not ah or ă.

blasé—bla-zā′.

blessed—The bless′ed (two syllables); He **was** blessed (one syl.).

Boccaccio—bok-kah′cho.
Bologna—Bol-ōn′ya.
Bouguereau—boo-ger-o′, nearly equal accent.
Boulanger—boo-long-zhā′, nearly equal accent.
bouquet—boo, not bō.
bourgeois—boorzh-wa′, nearly equal accent.
Bowdoin—bo′dn.
bowsprit—bō, not bow.
breeches—brĭch′ez.
breeching—brĭch′ing.
bronchitis—kī (accented), not ke.
brooch—brōch, o long.
Brougham—same as broom.
bureaucracy—bu-ro′kra-se.
business—biz′nes, two syllables.
Bysshe—bĭsh
Cairo—in Egypt kī, in U. S. kā.
caldron—cawl, not căl.
calf—kahf, not kăf.
calk—kawk, not kawlk.
Calliope—cal-lī′o-pe.
camelopard—accent mel.
canaille—că′nīē′.
carbine—bīn, not bĭn.
carrousel—roo, not row.
casualty—kăzh′u-al-te.
catch—not ketch.
Cayenne—kī-en′, not kā.
Cecil—sĕs′il.
celibacy—accent cel.
cellar—not sul.
cement—accent either syllable for noun, last syllable for verb.

chamois—mĭ.

chargé d'affaires—shar-zhā′ dăf-fār′.

chasten—chās, not chăs (t silent).

chastisement—accent chăs, not tise.

chestnut—t silent.

chic—shēk, not shĭk nor chĭk.

chicanery—shĭ, accent cā.

chough—chuf.

Cincinnati—nah′ti, not năt′ta.

civilization—i before z is not long.

clapboard—klab or klap.

cleanly—He is a cleanly (klĕn) person; He does his work cleanly (klēn).

cognac—kōn′yak.

column—um, not yum.

commandant—accent dant (dahnt).

compatriot—pā or păt.

compromise—kom′prō-mīz, not prom′is.

concentrate—accent con or cen.

Concord—(town)—kong′kerd.

conduit—kon′dit or kun′dit.

congress—kong, not kon.

conjure—I con-jure′ you; He could cun′jure like a magician.

connoisseur—con-nis-sur′, nearly equal accent.

conquest—kong, not kon.

conspiracy—spĭr, not spī.

to consummate—accent con (pref.) or sum.

contents—accent con or tents.

contrast—It is a good con′trast; The colors con-trast′ well.

conversant—accent con by pref.

converse—He con-versed′ well; I can prove **the** con′verse.
convoy—They con-voyed′ the con′voy.
cordial—yal, not i-al.
coup d' état—koo dā-ta′.
coupon—koo, not kū.
courteous—te-ous, not yus.
courtier—kōrt′yer.
Cowper—the English poet pronounced it "cooper."
creek—not krĭk.
Crichton—krī′tun.
culinary—cū, not cul.
cupboard—kub.
cynosure—accent cy, ı long, or cȳn.
czar—zahr.
damned—two syllables.
data—dā or dah.
daub—dawb, not dob.
daunt—dahnt (pref.) rather than **dawnt.**
deaf—dĕf (pref.) rather than dēf.
decade—accent dec, not cade.
decisive—cī, not cĭs.
decorous—accent cō (pref.) rather than **dec.**
defalcate—făl, not fawl (accented).
defalcation—accent cā.
deficit—accent dĕf, not fĭc.
definitive—accent fin.
delinquent—ling (accented), not **lin.**
demonstrate—accent dem or **mon.**
demonstrator—accent dem.
depot—dē′pō (pref.).
despicable—accent des, not **pic.**

desert—The des′ert; His de-serts′; To de-sert′.
dessert—accent sert.
desultory—accent des.
detail—He de-tailed′ me to look after the dē′tails or de-tails′.
detestation—dē or dĕt.
detour—dā-toor′.
devastation—dĕv.
diamond—di-a-mond, three syllables.
dilate—i short or long, accent late.
dilemma—i not long, accent lem.
dilettante—tăn′te.
diocesan—accent ŏc (os) or cē.
diphtheria—dip or dif.
diphthong—dip or dif.
directly—i not long.
discount—Dis′count the bill, or dis count′ it.
discrepancy—accent crep or dis.
dishabille—dis′a-bil.
dishevelled—di-shev′ld.
disputable—accent dis or pu.
disputant—accent dis, not pu.
Disraeli—diz-rā′el-e.
docile—dŏs, not dō.
dog—not dawg.
dolorous—dŏl, not dō.
donative—dŏn, not dō.
Doric—dŏr, not dō.
doth—duth, not dōth.
douche—doosh.
drama—drah-ma, drăm-a, or drā-ma.
dromedary—drum, not drom.
drought—drowt.

drouth—drowth (same as "drought").
dynamite—dī or dĭn.
dynasty—dy'nas-ty (y like i long) pref.
dyspepsy—accent pep.
Ecce Homo—ek'se hō'mō.
economical—ĕc or ē-co.
eczema—accent ze or ec.
effort—fert preferred to fōrt.
egotism—ē'go or ĕg.
either—ē Am., ī Eng.
elegiac—accent lē or gī (ji).
Elizabethan—bē'than or liz'-a-bĕth-an.
encyclopedic—pē'dic.
enema—accent en (pref.) rather than ne.
enervate—accent ner or en.
ennui—ŏn(g)'wē, not ong.
ensemble—on(g)-son(g)'bl.
equivoke—ĕq or ē'qui.
err—like were; erring like errand (e short as in "let").
espionage—es'pe-o-nazh'.
evangelical—ĕv-an or ē-van.
every—three syllables, not ĕv-re.
exemplary—accent ex or em.
exigency—accent ex, not ig.
expert—accent ex or pert.
explicable—accent ex, not plic.
expurgate—accent ex or pur.
exquisite—accent ex, not quis.
extant—accent tant, not ex.
extempore—ex-tem'po-re, not ex-tem'por.
extraordinary—tror preferred to tra-or.
eyre—ā're or ē're.

Eyre, Jane—like care, not fire.
façade—fă-sahd′.
falcon—faw, not fal.
familiarity—yar, not i-ar.
faucet—faw, not făs.
febrile—fē or fĕb.
February—Feb-roo, not Feb-u.
fecund—fē, not fĕc.
feminine—nĭn, not nīn.
fertile—tĭl, not tīl.
fidelity—fi not long.
finale—fi-nah′le, fi not long.
finance—fi not long, accent **năn**ce.
financier—fĭnan-sēr′.
fiord—fē-ord′.
flaccid—flak′sid, not flas.
flaunt—flahnt (pref.) rather than flawnt.
florist—flō (pref.) rather than flor (like **or**).
forbade—băd, not bād.
forge—o long, not as in for.
formidable—accent for, not mid.
frequent—It was a fre′quent occurrence; We fre-quented′ the hall.
Froude—frōōd, not frowd.
gallant—He was gal′lant on the field, and gal-lant′ in the parlor.
gaol—same as jail.
gape—gahp or gāp.
gaunt—gahnt (pref.) rather than gawnt.
Geike—gē′kē.
genial—yal (pref.) rather than i-al.
genius—yus (gifted person).
genius—i-us (supernatural being).

Genoa—accent Gen.
genuine—ĭn, not īn.
gigantic—i not long.
glamour—mur or moor′.
glisten—t silent.
Gloucester—glos′ter.
God—not gawd.
Goethe—gu(r)te(r)—the sound is that of these letters before r, though the r is not sounded.
gooseberry—gooz or goos.
Gounod—Goo-no (equal accent).
granary—grăn, not grā-na.
gratis—grā or grah, not grăt.
grievous—vous, not vi-us.
grimy—grī, not grĭm.
guardian—e-an or yan.
gubernatorial—gū, not gŭb.
half—hahf, not hăf.
handkerchief—chĭf, not chēf (except in Eng.).
handsome—hand′sum or han′sum.
harem—hā or hah.
haunt—hahnt (pref.) rather than hawnt.
Hawaiian—ha-wī′yan.
Hawarden—har′dn.
Haytian—hā′te-an.
hearth—harth, not herth.
Hecate—hec′a-te.
heinous—hā′nus.
Helena—hĕl′e-na, except St. Helē′na.
herb—erb pref. to herb.
heroine—hĕr, not hē-ro.
hiatus—hī-ā′tus.
history—not histry.

homage—hom (pref.) rather than om.
hoop—like loop.
hospitable—accent hos, not pit.
hostler—t silent, hos or os.
hover—huv, not hŏv.
humble—hum (pref.) rather than um.
humor—yu or hu.
hygienic—hī-gi-ĕn′ic.
hyperbole—hī-per′bō-le, not hī′per-bōl.
hypocrisy—y not long.
hypodermic—hĭp or hī.
ignoramus—rā or rah.
illustrate—accent lus, not il.
imbecile—sĭl or sēl.
immediate—di-ate, not je-at.
impious—im′pi-ous, not im-pī′ous.
implacable—im-plā′, not im-plak′.
importune—accent tune, not por.
imprimatur—accent mā.
inaugurate—au-gū, not au-ger.
incomparable—accent com, not par.
incongruous—kong, not kon, accented.
inconvenience—yens, not i-ens.
incorporeal—accent pō, not cor.
increase—Count the in′crease; The sum in-creases′.
indecorous—accent co (pref.) rather than dec.
indicatory—accent in, not dic.
indict—dīt.
indisputable—accent dis, not pu.
industry—accent in, not dus.
inexorable—accent ex, not o.
inexpiable—accent ex.

inexplicable—accent ex, not plic.
ingenious—yus (pref.) rather than i-us.
inhospitable—accent hos, not pit.
inopportune—accent tune.
inquiry—accent quī, not in.
instinct—Birds in-stinct′ with life; He depended on his in′stinct.
interest—in′ter-est, not trest nor ter-est′.
interesting—in′-trest-ing is English usage.
international—nash, not nā.
intestine—tĭn, not tīn.
intrigue—accent trigue, not in.
inveigle—vē, not vā.
inventory—accent in, not ven.
irony—ī′run-e.
irremediable—accent mē, not rem.
irrevocable—accent rev, not vo.
isolate—ĭs or ī′so.
Israel—iz, not iss.
isthmus—ist or is, not isth.
Italian—first i short.
italic—first i short.
Jacobin—jăk.
Jacques—zhak.
Jaques (in Shakspere)—jā′quez.
January—not jen.
jeans—like Jane.
Joaquin—wah-kēn′.
joust—just.
jowl—jōl, not jowl.
Juan—Don Jū′an or h′wan (hoo′an).
jugular—jū, not jug.
Khedive—ka-dēv′.

lamentable—accent lam, not ment.
landau—daw, not dō (Ger., not Fr.).
lang syne—sīn, not zīn.
laugh—lahf, not lăf.
launch—lahnch (pref.) rather than lawnch.
laundress—lahn (pref.) rather than lawn.
lava—lah′va.
learned—He is a learn′ed man, though he has not learn'd to make money.
legend—lē or lĕg.
legislature—accent leg, not la.
leisure—lē (pref.) rather than lĕzh.
Leominster—lĕm-ster.
lettuce—tis, not tus.
levee—lĕv′e, bank of river; lev-ēē′, gathering of guests.
lichen—lī′ken or lĭch′en.
lieutenant—lu or lef.
literature—choor or tūr, not toor.
loath, loth (same word)—like both.
loathe—th as in breathe.
long-lived—i long, not as in live.
lyceum—accent ce, not ly.
mademoiselle—mad-mwa-zel′, not mad-um-wa-zel.
mall, a walk—măl or mĕl.
mall, a hammer—mawl.
mama—accent last syllable, mah, by pref.
massage—ma-sahzh′.
measure—mezh, not māzh.
medicinal—accent dic.
medieval—mē or mĕd.

mediocre—mē, not mĕd.
Meisonnier—mā-sun-yā′, nearly equal accent.
meliorate—mēl′yor-āt.
memoir—mĕm′wor or mē′mwor.
mesne—mēn.
mischievous—accent mis, not chiev.
mock—not mawk.
moisten—t silent.
molecule—mŏl better than mō; but mō-lec′u-lar.
monetary—mun, not mŏn.
naïf—nah-ēf′ (masc.); **naïve**—nah-ēv′ (fem.).
naked—nā′ked, not neck′ed.
nape—a long, not năp.
national—nash, not nā.
négligé—nā-glē-zhā′ (nearly equal accent).
neither—nē (Am.) or nī (Eng.).
nephew—nĕv or nĕf.
nepotism—nĕp, not nē.
Newfoundland—accent found, pref. to New′-fund-land.
New Orleans—accent Or.
nitrogenous—accent trog (troj).
noblesse oblige—nō-bles′ ō-blēzh′.
nomad—nŏm (pref.) rather than **nō.**
nothing—nŭth, not nŏth.
oasis—accent o or a.
obeisance—bā or bē, accented.
obelisk—ŏb, not ō′be.
obscenity—scĕn, not scē′ni.
occult—accent cult, not oc.
office—not awfus.
often—t silent.
ogle—ō′gl, not ŏg′l.

omelet—om′e-let, not om-let.
only—not unly.
onyx—ŏn or ō′nix.
opponent—accent po, not op.
orchid—or′kid.
ordeal—accent or, not de.
Orion—accent rī, not o.
ostler—t silent.
overalls—not hawls.
oyer—ō′yer, not oi′er.
Paderewski—pa-der-ĕfs′ke.
pageant—păj′ent or pā′jent.
Pall Mall—pel mel.
papier maché—pap-yā′ mah-shā′.
parent—par like care, not păr.
patent—păt or pā.
patriot—pā′tri or păt.
peculiar—cūl′yar, not cū′li-ar.
pecuniary—cūn′ya-re, not cū′ni-ar-e.
pedal—His pē′dal extremities were on the pĕd′al of the organ.
peremptory—accent per or emp; not prē′emp.
periodic—pē′ri, not pĕr′i.
perspiration—not pres.
phonics—phō′nics, not phŏn′ics.
pigeon—un, not in.
piquant—pē′kant, not pĭk′want.
poem—not pōm.
poignant—g silent, poi′nant.
portemonnaie—slight accent on last syllable, nā.
precedence—accent cē.

precedent—He had a prē-cē′dent position, but it did not form a prĕc′e-dent.
predecessor—pred, not prē′de.
predilection—prē′di, not prĕd.
preface—pref, never prē.
preferable—prĕf, not prē-fer′.
prelate—prĕl, not prē.
prelude—prĕl or prē.
premature—prē, not prĕm.
premier—prĕm-yā′ (danseuse); prē′mi-er (of England).
prescience—prē′she-ence or prē′shens.
presentation—prĕs, not prē.
prestige—prĕs′tĭj or prās-tēzh′.
pretence—accent tence, not pre.
pretty—prit, not pret.
prima facie—prī′ma fā′shi-ē, not fā′sha.
princess—accent prin, not cess.
privacy—prī, not prĭv.
probity—prŏb, not prō′bi.
process—prŏc, in England prō.
produce—prŏd, in England prō.
progress—prŏg, in England prō.
project—He is prō-ject′ing a new prŏj′ect (in Eng. prō).
pronunciation—ce-ā′shun or she-ā′shun.
pro tempore—pō-re, not pōr.
prussic—prŭs′ik, not proo.
psalter—sawl′ter, p silent.
pseudonym—p silent.
Psyche—sī′ke.
puerile—ĭl, not īle.
Punjaub—accent jaub (jahb), not Pun.

purport—accent pur, not port.
pyramidal—pe-răm′i-dal.
pyrites—pe-rī′tez.
quay—kē.
quinine—kwī′nīn or kwĭn′ēn.
qui vive—kē vēv.
radish—rad, not red.
railery—răl or răl.
rajah—rah′ja.
rapine—răp, not rā.
raspberry—răz, now rawz.
ration—rā or răsh.
rational—răsh, not rā.
really—rē′al, not rēl.
record—Record′ his name in this rec′ord (erd, not ord).
referable (accent rĕf) or **referrible** (accent fer).
refutable—accent fūt.
regime—rā-zhēm′.
reparable—accent rĕp.
requiem—rē′qui or rĕk′we.
research—accent search.
resignation—rez, not res.
resource—accent source.
respite—pĭt, not pīt.
resplendent—rē-splĕn′, not rĕs.
resume—rā-zu-mā′.
retail—In the rē′tail store many a story was re-tailed′.
retrograde—rĕt or rē.
revocable—accent rĕv.
revolt—vōlt or vŏlt.

rheum—same as room.
Richelieu—rĭsh′el-yū.
righteous—yŭs.
robust—accent bust, not ro.
romance—accent mance, not ro.
Romola—accent Rŏm.
root—like boot.
route—like boot (pref.) rather than **rowt.**
rout—rowt.
routine—roo, not row.
Ruy Blas—roo′e blahs.
sacrament—săc, not sā′cra.
sacrilegious—lē′jus, not lĭj′us.
Sainte Beuve—san(g)t bĕv (nearly).
Salic—săl, not sā.
salmon—l silent, săm′un.
salve—sahv, not săv.
salver—săl, not sah.
satiety—accent tī; not sā′she-i-ti.
saucy—saws, not săs.
saunter—sahn or sawn.
says—sĕz, Eng. sāz.
scenic—scĕn, better than scē′nic.
schedule—skĕd′yūl, Eng. shĕd′yūl.
schism—ch silent, sĭzm.
Schubert—shoo′bert, not bar.
Schurz, Carl—shoorts, not shurts.
seamstress—sēm or sĕm.
seine (net)—sān.
Seine (river)—sān.
semi—sĕm′i, not sĕm′ī (i must not be too long).
senile—sē, not sĕn.
senior—sēn′yer.

sentient—sĕn′she-ent.
sergeant—sahr, not ser.
series—sē′rēz, not riz.
sesame—sĕs′a-me.
shew—shō.
shone—shōn or shŏn.
short-lived—līvd, not lĭvd.
simile—sĭm′il-e.
since—not sense.
sinecure—sī′ne, not sĭn.
Slav—slahv or slăv.
sleek—not slick.
slough (cast skin of serpent)—slŭf.
slough (miry place)—slow.
sloven—sluv′n.
soften—t silent.
solecism—sŏl, not sō.
solstice—sŏl, not sōl.
soon—like moon.
soot—like boot, not sŭt.
sough—sow or sŭf (English).
sovereign—sŭv or sŏv.
squalor—squŏl or squāl.
steady—sted, not stid.
St. John (English name)—sĭn′jun.
St. Maur—sē′mōr.
stolid—stŏl, not stō.
strategic—tĕg or tē′gic.
subtile (fine, thin)—sub′til.
subtle (artful)—sŭt′l, b silent.
suggest—suj or sug′jest.
suite—swēt, not sūt.
surprise—not sup.

survey—He made a sur′vey, He sur-veyed′ the land.
sword—w silent.
syllabic—accent lăb.
syringe—accent syr, not inge.
Tadema—accent Tăd.
tapis—tā′pis or tăp′is.
taunt—tahnt (pref.) rather than tawnt.
Tchaikovski—chī-kŭvs′ ke.
teat—tēt, not tĭt.
tedious—tēd′yus or tē′di-us.
telegrapher—accent lĕg.
tenacious—nā′shus, not năsh.
tenet—tĕn′et, not tē′net.
Terpsichore—terp-sĭk′o-re.
Thalia—accent lī.
Thames (river)—tĕmz.
their—to rhyme with care; **there** the same.
therefore—"there" like were, more elegant than "there" like care.
Thiers—te-ār.
thyme—like time.
ticklish—not tik′el-ish.
tiny—tī, not tĭn or tē-ni.
tirade—accent rāde.
tomato—mah or mā.
tortoise—tis, not tois.
toward—w silent.
Trafalgar—accent făl.
tribune—trĭb, not trī.
triphthong—trip or trif.
troche—trō′ke.
trochee—trō′ke.

truculent—troo′cū (pref.) rather than trŭc.
tsar—same as czar, t silent.
Turgenev (Tourguenieff)—Toor′gā-nēf.
unguent—ung′gwent, not jent.
unlearned—un-learn′ed, not lernd.
usage—sound of z, not s.
usurp—sound of z, not s.
vagary—accent gā, not va.
vaginal—accent văg or gī.
valet—văl′et or va-lā′.
valuable—val′u-a-ble, not val′u-ble.
vanquish—văng′kwish.
variorum—vā-ri-ō′rum.
vase—vās, vahz, or vāz.
vaunt—vahnt or vawnt.
Veda—vā′da or vē′da.
vehemence—accent ve, not he.
velvet—not vit.
venison—vĕn′zn or ven′e-zn.
veracious—rā, not răsh.
vermilion—mil′yun, not mil′i-un.
version—shun, not zhun.
villain—vil′lin, not lun.
Viola—ve-ō′la or vē′o-la (the latter in Shakspere's Twelfth Night).
Virchow—fēr′kō.
virile—vī or vĭr.
virulence—vĭr, not ver.
viscount—vī′kownt.
vivacious—vā (accented), not vash.
vocable—vō, not vŏc.
volcano—cā, not cah.
von (German)—fŭn, not vŏn.

Wagner—vahg′ner.
warrior—yur or ri-or.
weapon—wĕp, not wē.
Weber—vā′ber.
Wemyss—wēmz.
whether—not wĕth.
which—not wĭch.
while—not wīle.
wife's—not wīve's (keep f sound).
wind (movement of air)—i long in poetry.
windpipe—wĭnd (i short).
won't—o long, not wŭnt.
wont (no apostrophe)—wŭnt.
worsted—woost′ed (woos like puss) or woorst′ed.
wound—wōōnd (pref.) rather than wownd.
Xavier—zăv′i-er.
Xenia—zē′ni-a.
Xerxes—zerx′ez.
yellow—not yul.
yolk—yōk or yōlk.
Yosemite—yō-sĕm′i-te.
zenith—zē or zĕn.
Zeus—zūs, not zē′us.
zoology—zō-ŏl′, not zoo-ol′.

WORDS OFTEN MISSPELLED

abbot
Abbott (name 2 t's)
abbreviate (2 b's)
ability
abridgment (no e after g)
abscess (sc)
abundant (ant)
accessible
acclimate
accommodate (ac, com, modo)
accomplish
accrue
accumulate
ache
achievement (ie)
acknowledgment (no e after g)
acre
admirable
advantageous
advertise (notice s)
advice
advise
affect
again
against
aggravate
ailment (disease)
aisle (in a church)
alcoholic
Alcott (2 t's)
alignment
aliment (food)
alley (narrow street)
allopathy
all right (two words)
almanac
almond
already (al, one l)
altar (for worship)
alter (to change)
although (al)
altogether (al)
analyses (two or more)
analysis (sing.)
analyze (yze or yse)
anecdote (one n)
anniversary (notice i)

antidote
anxiety
apothecary
apothegm
appeal
appreciate
approbation
arc
argument
arraign
arrangement (ge)
ascent (upward)
assent (agree)
assessment
assignment
assure
attachment
attorneys (neys)
audacious
audible
augment
authorize
automatic
automobile
auxiliary
avaricious
avoirdupois
bacilli
bail (from jail)
bale (of hay)
ballot
balm
bankruptcy
banquet
bare (naked)
bargain
base (bottom)
bass (in music)
bazaar
beach (shore)
bear (carry)
beaux or beaus
beech (tree)
belief (e next f, as in alphabet)
beneficiary
benefit
berth
besiege
bevel
bicycle
birth
biscuit
bizarre (strange)
breath
breathe
brief (e next f, as in alphabet)
build
bureau
calendar (giving days, ar)
calendered (paper, er)
campaign
cancelling
cañon (canyon)

canvas (cloth)
canvass (solicit)
capital (city or letter)
capitol (building)
capricious
caricature (no h)
carriage
cashier
casino
castile
casualty (accident; cf. causality)
catarrhal
cautious
cayenne
cedar
celebrate (**le**)
celebrity
cellar
cemetery (**me**)
censor (critic)
censure (blame)
ceremony
certainty
chagrin
chamois
champagne (wine)
champaign (country)
changeable (geable)
Chautauqua (**au, au**)
Cheyenne
chief (**ie**, e next f, as in alphabet)
chattel
chocolate
chord (music)
Cincinnati (2 n's, one t)
cloth (material)
clothe (to cover)
coalesce
coarse (not fine)
cocaine
cocoanut
cold-chisel (not coal)
colicky
collar
collegiate
colonel
color
commendable
commission
committee (3 double letters)
communicative
comparable
comparative
complaisant
complement (that which makes complete)
complexion
compliance
compliment (we pay them)
comprise (**ise**)
compromise (**ise**)

comptroller (pronounce con-trol)
concede (cede)
conceit (ceit)
conciliate
conclusive
condemn
conference
condescend (sc)
conducive
conference
confidant (ant, one trusted)
confident (ent, sure)
confidential
connection
Connecticut
connoisseur (2 s's, 2 n's)
conscience (sc)
consequence
consequential
consign
consistency
consummate
contemn (despise)
contemptible
contingent
controversy
convenient
cord
cordial
correction
correspondence
cough
council (body, board)
councillor (member of council)
counsel (advice)
counsellor (adviser)
counterfeit
countersign
counting-house
courageous
creditable
creditor
criticise (cise)
crow's-foot (notice apos. and hyphen)
cumulative
currant (ant, fruit)
current (ent, stream; present time)
customary
cynical
cyclopedia
czar
dam (mother; for water)
damn (oath)
data (plu.)
datum (sing.)
dearth
débris
debt
début

decease
decipher
decision
decrepit
deficient
deficit
definite
deleble (**eble**; not like indelible)
delegate
delicious
delinquent
demeanor
demi-monde (final **e**)
demur
demurrer (double r)
dénouement (noue)
depreciate
descent (**sc**)
description (**des**, not dis)
desert (leave; barren ground)
Des Moines
despair (**des**)
despicable
dessert (to eat)
detriment
diamond
diarrhea (or rhœa)
difference
diligent
disagreement
disappoint
discourteous
discern
discreet (double **e**)
discuss (double s)
dispense
dissent (disagree with)
divisible
donor
draught (or draft)
drought (or drouth)
duchess (no t)
dumb
durable
dyeing (coloring, **ye**)
earnest (name Ernest, no a)
eave (trough; name Eve, no a)
eclipse
economical
ecstasy (**sy**)
effect (different **word** from affect)
efficient
eggregious (3 g's)
electrotype
elegant
eligible
emanate (middle a)
embezzle (double **z**)
emigrant

eminent (prominent; cf. imminent)
embryo
endeavor
enough
enterprise
enumerate
envelop (to cover)
envelope (for letters)
errata (plu.)
erratum (sing.)
erroneous
error (or)
essence
etiquette (one t, 2 t's)
evidence
evil
exaggerate
excellence
exemplary (ary)
exercise
exchequer
exonerate
experiencing
extraordinary (traor)
extravagant (va)
familiar
fascinate
fatigue
February
fête
fiancé (man)
fiancée (woman)
fierce
fiery
filigree (li)
financier
firkin
flaccid (2 c's)
forcible
foreign
forfeit
formidable
fragile
franchise (ise)
fraudulent
frolicking
fundamental
fulfill (ful, one l, fill two)
gamble (play)
gambol (frisk)
gassy (double s)
gazette
gluey (ey)
gnaw
grammar
granary
granulate
grievance (ie)
guarantee
handkerchief
harass (double s)
height
hemorrhage
heroes (oe)

holiday
homeopathic (**meo**)
horizontal
hosiery
hypocrite (final e)
ignominious
illegible
illustrate
immediate
immersion
immigrant
imminent (cf. eminent)
impair
implicit
incite
inconceivable
increase
indelible (**ible**)
indefinite
indefinable
indispensable
indivisible
indorsement
inefficient
infallible
infection
inference
influential
infringement
intelligible
ingenious (clever)
ingenuous (naïve)
insidious
inst. (no plural)
install
instill
insufficient
interval
intercede (**cede**)
intimate
invalid
invariably
inveigle
invisible (**ible**)
irreparable
irrepressible
island
Israel (not **z**)
jamb
janitor
jeopardize
judgment (no e after **g**)
judicial
juice
junior
ketchup
knee
knew
knob
languid
leisure
lenient
lettuce (**uce**)
liability
license (**c**, then **s**)
lien

lieu
lieutenant
ligament
lightening (brightening)
lightning (with thunder)
liquor
lineament (feature)
liniment (medicine)
listen
literary
loathe (abhor)
lodgment (no e after g)
lose (verb)
loss (noun)
loth (unwilling)
lozenge
luncheon
luscious (sc)
macaroni
Mackinac (pronounced naw)
mail (postal matter)
main (principal)
maintain
maintenance (ten, not tain)
male (not female)
malign
management
mane (of a horse)
maneuver (or manœuvre)
mantel (for fireplace)
mantle (cloak)
manufactory
manufacture
manufacturer
marriageable (eable)
Marseilles
marshal
Marshall (name, double l)
Massachusetts (2 s's, 1 s, 2 t's)
material
mattress (2 t's, 2 s's)
maximum
mean (cf. mien)
medicine (di)
medium
melon
mercantile
merchandise (ise)
merriment
Messieurs
Messrs.
metallic
mileage (or milage)
milliner
minimum
minion
minute
miscellaneous
mischief
misdemeanor

missent
Mississippi (3 doubles)
misspell
molasses
monetary
monopoly
mortgageor (geor)
naïve (dots over i)
Naragansett (double t)
necessary
necessity
neigh (of a horse)
neighbor
nickel (el)
nonpareil (reil)
noticeable
nuisance
obscene (sc)
obvious
occasion
occurrence (2 r's, 2 c's)
omelet (middle e)
operator
opinion
opponent
opportunity
originate
organdie (die)
oscillate (sc)
ostensible
outrageous
oxygen
quarry
palatable
palpable
parallel (llel, 2 l's in middle)
paralyze (or yse)
parcel
parliament (lia)
particle
particular
passable
passage
peaceable
peculiar
pecuniary
perceive
perception
peremptory (per, not pre)
perennial
pernicious
perpetrate
phenomena (plu.)
phenomenon (sing.)
phlegmatic
physician
physicked
pianos
plain (simple, level land)
plane (tool)
plausible
pledge
plumber (b)

pneumatic
pneumonia
policy
porcelain
possess
possible
practical
prairie
precede (**cede**)
preference
prejudice (**prej**)
preliminary
premium
preparation
prevalent
previous
principal (chief)
principle (in science)
privilege
probable
procedure (**ced**)
proceed (**ceed**)
professional
proffer
profitable
promenade
promiscuous
proprietor
pseudonym (no silent n)
punctilious
purchase (pur)
purpose (**pur**)
pursue (note pur)
purview (**pur**)
ratify
recede (**cede**)
receipt (for pastry)
receive (**ei—e next c,** as in alphabet)
reception
recipe (for drugs)
recipient
reciprocate
recognize
recommend (**one c**)
recompense
recruit
reimburse
remit
remittance (**2 t's**)
rendezvous
requisite
rescind (**sc**)
residue
resin
responsible
restaurant
resumé
reticent
revenue
rhubarb
rhyme
rhythm
sacque
sacrifice

salary (**lar**)
sanitary
satchel
scepter
schedule
scheme
scholar
search
secede (**cede**)
secretary
seminary
senatorial
sensible
sensibility
separate (**par**)
sergeant (**ser** for sar)
serious
serviceable
Shakespeare (Shakspere)
shear (cut)
sheer (thin, mere)
sheriff (double f)
shoeing
shone (looked bright)
shown (presented to view)
shyly
shyness
signature
similar
simultaneous
singular
sirloin
situation
society
solicitor
sleight (of hand)
specialty
specie
specimen
stair (steps)
stare (gaze)
stationary (fixed)
stationery (for writing)
statistics
steal (thieve)
steel (metal)
stencil
stereotype
straight (not crooked)
strait (narrow)
strategy
strychnine
subsequent
subsidiary
summary
succeed (**ceed**)
supersede (**sede**)
supercilious
superscribe
surprise (**sur, not sup**)
susceptible
suspicious
syllable
symmetry (**sym, 2 m's**)

sympathy
synonym (**nym, no silent n**)
synopsis
tacit
tangible
tariff (double f)
technical
temporary
Tennessee (3 doubles)
terrible
testimonial
their (they-r)
there
thorough
thumb
tingeing (notice e)
toeing (e)
total
traceable
trafficking
transient
truly
unanimous
undeceive (**ei**)
uniform
until (one l)
vaccilate (double c)
vale (valley)
valid
valleys
variable
vegetable (**ge**)
vehicle
veil (for the face)
verbatim
vestige
vicinity
villain (double l)
vinegar
visible
waist (of a person)
waive (a hearing)
wares (hardware)
waste (lose)
wave (of water)
wear (carry habitually)
weather
welfare (**wel**)
whether
wholesome
wholly (no **e**)
Worcester
wreck
wretch
wrestle
wrinkle
wrist
yolk (of an **egg**)
zeros
zincky

ERRORS IN THE USE OF WORDS

Mistakes of the Purists.

While purity of language is greatly to be desired, nothing is more amusing than to read the tirades of the purists on "Words and Their Uses".* A number of years ago Dean Alford brought out a book on "The Queen's English", in which he attacked the general public and its use of certain words. Then came a man of the name of Moon, with a book on "The Dean's English". Goold Brown illustrated his grammar with errors found in Murray and other grammarians. And so it went on. Every purist delighted to illustrate all the errors in the list by sentences and phrases taken from the writings of his fellow purists. It became dangerous to open one's mouth.

But this is all wrong. Language is for the purpose of expression, and if we frighten ourselves with the bugaboo of errors, we shall be-

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*Though the usage of printers commonly places all periods and commas inside of quotation marks (for the sake of appearance) and only semi-colons, exclamation points and other high marks outside, I have preferred in this book to place all points where they logically belong.

come stiff and awkward, if not quite dumb. In writing we must be guided by instinct, not by logic. Our language is full of elisions, substitutions, comparisons suggested, and words used in certain phrases with meanings purely idiomatic and unexplainable. When these purists are guided by their instinct they commit the very faults they themselves condemn; and all of them do it. Evidently instinct is stronger than logic. Instinct is indeed the only right guide, if instinct has been properly cultivated and developed.

Unfortunately many of us have been brought up in surroundings unfavorable to purity of language. Our instincts remain undeveloped if indeed they are not grossly perverted. We have not learned what delicacy of expression is. Some method of studying words is therefore important; but we will do far better if we seek to add knowledge of the differences and shades of meaning, and variety of expression, rather than to suppress our errors. Fill the mind with richness, and error will inevitably be crowded out.

The first thing for us to do is to train ourselves on those fine distinctions in the values of words which cultivated people make but common people miss; and then we may learn some of the points in which the usages of cultivated society differ from the usages of the average world, so that we may speak in such a way that cultivated society will listen to us and the influence of our words may be felt. In a speech to a cultivated audience one serious solecism or

misuse of a word would entirely spoil the effect of what we said, since the audience would be so taken up with laughing at us.

Mistakes that all cultivated people condemn are therefore to be avoided carefully. But a book on "Words and Their Uses" is more likely to be studied by a person already well educated, and attention is concentrated on so called mistakes that all cultivated people make, and which intuition leads even the puristic correctors of our speech to make themselves. In many cases these so called corrections are absolutely vicious, in reality an attack on the idiomatic structure of our language. They are examples of imperfect analysis and word-logic.

For example, we have been told that a sentence should not end with a preposition. Throwing the preposition to the end is one of the most thoroughly established idioms of the language, and following such a rule can only result in weakening and stiffening our sentences.

Again we are told that "only" should be placed directly before the word or phrase it modifies. In the preceding paragraph I have said "such a rule can only result in weakening" when, the purists tell me, I obviously mean "can result only in weakening". Throwing the modifying adverb before the verb is a sort of figure of speech, an idiom, which it is difficult to explain but something every one does, and apparently with greater naturalness and ease of expression. We should be on our guard against carrying this to excess, and should realize that greater exactness

of expression is attained by placing the adverb where logically it belongs. Ordinarily, however, we would give this adverb too much prominence in placing it in that way.

The same applies to "not". "I don't think" is logically condemnable; but it is English idiom beyond a question.

"As though" is said to make nonsense when you fill in the ellipsis in such a sentence as "I feel as (I should feel) though you ought to do it". Purists to the contrary, the use of "if" does not help the matter ("I feel as I should feel if you ought to do it"!). Why supply this ellipsis? "As though" is an idiom, and a good one. That is enough for me.

"Reliable" is condemned because a strict derivation would give us "rely-on-able". But every one understands "reliable", and nearly every one uses it.

William Cullen Bryant had an "index expurgatorius" of words not to be used by his reporters for the New York Evening Post. It includes some of the pet aversions of the purists, as well as words it would be very hard for any one to take exception to. Some of the good words condemned by others as well as by Bryant are—bogus, commence (for "begin"), couple (for "two of a kind"), darky, donate, graduate (for "is graduated"), is being done, jeopardize (for the practically obsolete "jeopard"), leniency (for "lenity"), loan (for "lend"), over one's signature (instead of "under"), retire (as an active verb, as in "retiring bonds"), rôle, standpoint, taboo,

talented. All these words have been violently attacked, I think, without due reason.

Richard Grant White in his "Words and their Uses" makes a tilt at "caption" (which by derivation means act of taking, not heading, being derived from the Latin original of "capture", not "capital"), decimate (which meant originally to take one in ten, not cut to pieces), dirt (for soil), editorial (as a noun), help-meet (for helpmate), ice-water (for "iced water"), kinsman (for connection by marriage as well as blood), leave (without an object, as "Jones left this morning for Chicago"), patron (for customer of a retail merchant), quite (for very or somewhat, as in "quite a warm day"), railroad depot (for station), real estate (not in legal documents, for land), enceinte, rooster (for cock), gubernatorial, hydropathy, practitioner, presidential, etc. All these words are well established and unobjectionable except to a supersensitive taste.

"Loan" as a verb is universally condemned, and undoubtedly it is often wrongly used for "lend"; but when an object is placed in a loan collection the best speakers and writers I have observed use the word "loan", and "lend" sounds ridiculous. We "lend money", do not "loan it"; but Mrs. Custer "loans" her war-relics to the government for exhibition purposes.

When I began to think about my use of "would" and "will" after "we" I found my instinct required "would" in many cases where there was no suggestion of willingness, as in "We would say 'by me', not 'by I'", meaning

"we should inevitably say", a case of prediction in which the rules require "should". Yet if we say "should" and put any emphasis on it the meaning suggested is "ought". My conclusion is that when "we" is used as a mild and polite substitute for "you", "people in general", and there is no emphasized assertion of the first person against all others, "would" and "will" are as much justified after "we" as they would be after "you" or "they". In business letters when "we" means the company represented by the writer" the almost universal "would" and "will" are justifiable.

At the same time the ordinary person has wholly lost the fine distinctions in the use of "shall" and "will", "should" and "would", and if he is going to make his language expressive he must learn them. "I would be glad to see you" is unquestionably bad at all time.

Half-baked Criticism of English.

While nothing is more desirable than the promotion of pure English, some scholarly purists, as we have seen, have injured the cause by their excessive zeal. How much more objectionable is the half-baked fault-finding of certain persons only partly educated, who try to impose their taste and imperfect knowledge on those about them. They are usually gentlemen who have been successful in their professions, and flatter themselves that they know everything; or else they are college graduates who mistake pedantic snobbery

for education (and the better the college, the more snobbish the graduate is likely to be). I remember especially the foolish criticisms of an Oxford graduate who was literary adviser to a well known London publisher; another was a Harvard graduate who was an assistant in a schoolbook house; a third was sub-editor of one of our oldest and best weekly papers, and re-wrote the work of a well known and accomplished author (absolutely spoiling it), of course in ignorance of the identity of the man whose work he was revising. Old and cranky proof-readers are also sinners in this direction, and cause their employers the loss of hundreds of dollars every year by the needless changes they make. Some young ladies ambitious to show off their accomplishments are likewise in this class.

I know nothing more detestable than to study English with a view to finding fault with others. The greatest masters of style, who have been most successful in editorial criticism, have made their reputations, like W. E. Henley, by the obvious improvement resulting from very slight changes. A correction in a MS. which is not apparent on its face as an improvement in clearness or effectiveness of expression is hardly worth making. Hypercriticism on doubtful points I believe to be positively injurious.

The Right Preposition.

One of the first steps toward knowledge of the nice and accurate use of words is study of the

right preposition to employ after any verb, noun, or adjective.

Prepositions have varied and delicate meanings; but it is almost impossible to define them in words. Instinct must guide us to the choice of that preposition which good usage requires in connection with each word.

One helpful key to the right choice of prepositions is observation of the Latin and other prefixes which were originally prepositions, and which are usually accompanied by a corresponding preposition to be used after the derived word.

For example "cum" or "com" or "con" or "cor" in Latin means *with,* and we say "compare with", "combine with", "concur with", "conjoin with", "confuse with", "consort with", "correspond with", etc. But this is not always a good guide, for there are many variations.*

It would be difficult to give any glossary of words with the prepositions which would be correct with them, for with a slight change of meaning the same word may be followed by several prepositions. "Wait for" means one thing, "wait on" means something entirely different.

As an interesting exercise, form natural sentences in which these words are correctly followed by the preposition which heads each list:

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*For a full list of prefixes and the English prepositions to which they correspond, see Cody's "Word-Study."

About

See, ask, hear, talk, inquire, contend, consult, think, know, care, worry, fret, complain; anxious, inquisitive, solicitous, angry, informed, thoughtful.

At

Arrive, throw, shoot, grasp, hiss, strike; an attempt.

By

Call, know, judge, live, attend, surround, measure, smear, etc.

The agent is introduced by "by", the means by "with", as in "He was killed *by* a tramp *with* a club."

For

Ask, act, argue, beg, call, care, hope, labor, long, plan, reach, strive, struggle, toil, wish, work, speak, think, subscribe.

From

Differ, borrow, extort, take away, demand, learn, hear, deviate, decline, shrink, dissent, withdraw, swerve, stray, cease, desist, abstain, rest, free, save, deliver, release, redeem, absolve, excuse, protect, preserve, guard, conceal, defend, part, disjoin, divide, sift, separate, detract, divert, refrain, seduce, alienate, exempt, distinguish, etc.

In

Believe, excel, exceed, surpass, improve, inhere, advance, fail, fall, rise, sink, share, engage, interfere, join, meddle, participate, etc.

Of

Acquit, balk, bereave, break, cheat, cleanse, clear, cure, defraud, deliver, deprive, despair, disappoint, disarm, disburden, divest, fail, heal, lighten, miss, purge, recover, relieve, rid, rob, shear, spoil, tire, weary, come, spring, build, compose, create, form, frame, ask, beg, beseech, crave, demand, desire, entreat, expect, inquire, request, require, want, deserve, accuse, beware, boast, brag, complain, die, smell, suspect, hear, learn, know, acquaint, admonish, assure, convict, convince, remind, warn, dream, judge, think, admit, allow, approve, avail; afraid, ashamed, aware, capable, careless, certain, confident, conscious, enamored, envious, fearful, fearless, fond, forgetful, glad, heedful, hopeless, ignorant, impatient, incapable, indulgent, insensible, insusceptible, jealous, mindful, neglectful, negligent, observant, proud, reckless, sensible, studious, sure, suspicious, tender, thoughtful, uncertain, unconscious, vain, watchful, worthy, guilty, innocent, thoughtful, apprehensive, descriptive, productive, etc.

To

Bring, carry, come, drag, draw, fall, flee, go, lead, pull, push, send, ship, sink, throw, bend, kneel, stoop, address, appeal, call, complain, lie, pray, preach, relate, repeat, shout, talk, telegraph, tell, whisper, write, adhere, attach, bind, chain, cleave, cling, fasten, fix, grow, hang, knit, marry, nail, pin, stick, tie, dance, echo, resound, respond, alter, burn, change, contract, diminish, freeze, grow, increase, reduce, transform, turn,

adapt, conform, consent, fit, suit; adjacent, close, according, agreeable, congenial, equal, proportionate, similar, dear, pleasant, precious, sacred, welcome, false, good, just, kind, partial, unfair, etc.

With

Accord, agree, ally, combine, concur, fuse, incorporate, interfere, intermingle, meddle, mix, unite, confer, consult, argue, combat, contend, debate, discuss, fight, strive, struggle, wrangle; accordant, content, displeased, gratified, pleased, satisfied, united, etc.

Here are a few errors in the use of prepositions, quoted from Nichol:

It was an example of his love to form comparisons (should be "of forming");

It was characterized with eloquence (should be "by");

A testimonial of the merits of his grammar (should be "testimonial to");

Repetition is always to be preferred before obscurity (should be "to obscurity");

He made an effort for meeting them (should be "to meet");

They have no other object but to come (should be "other object than" or "no object but").

General Faults

A few faults that cannot be classified alphabetically deserve mention here. In looking over proofs or correcting a MS. one should be on the lookout for them.

1. Words too often repeated, unless the repetition is intended for emphasis or something of that sort, offend the ear, though they do not catch the attention of one reading silently. It is well to read aloud anything to be corrected, and let the ear take particular notice of any disagreeable repetitions of sounds of whatever kind.

There is an especial objection to using in the same sentence or in adjoining sentences one word with different meanings, as "He formed his style on the forms in a form-book."

If a word is deliberately repeated for emphasis or clearness, no objection is to be taken to it. It is the unconscious repetition of words that is objectionable.

2. Much depends on the natural and easy flow of sentences, and an arrangement of words that will avoid awkward combinations. Just above I wrote first, "It is well to read anything to be corrected aloud", but changed the position of "aloud" to "read aloud anything to be corrected". It often takes ingenuity and thought to get a sentence arranged in the best way. We should therefore always be on the lookout for awkward combinations.

3. While a very few people who have cultivated the habit use sentences too short and jerky, with the mistaken notion that they are writing the epigrammatic style, the natural tendency is to use sentences too long. Every sentence should be a perfect and concise unit, and if its parts hang together at all loosely, it should be cut up into two or more separate sentences.

The tendency toward long sentences also involves the excessive use of participles and verbal nouns with prepositions, etc., as well as too many relative clauses. The direct verb or infinitive is nearly always more natural than the indirect or participial form, and changing participles to direct verbs often has a marvellous effect on a sentence in making it firm and forceful. The infinitive is more direct than the participle, and the regular verb than the infinitive.

Here is an illustrative sentence:

"In regard to your proposition, I have taken the matter up with our manager, and while he is impressed with some of the points you make, believing that our men could benefit by your service, and not overlooking the advantage that will accrue in the more expeditious handling of our mail, still he is of the opinion that we shall gain by postponing the matter and taking it up next fall, in the meantime preparing our men according to a plan of our own so that they will then be ready to benefit by your instruction."

The opening phrase in this sentence is unnecessary. Say, "I have taken up your proposition with our manager. While he is impressed with some of the points you make, he thinks it will be best to postpone the matter till next fall. We believe that our men would benefit by your service, and do not overlook the advantage that will accrue in the more expeditious handling of our mail. If we wait until fall, however, we can prepare our men by a plan of our own so that

they may be ready then to benefit by your instruction."

4. Try to introduce as much variety as possible. Alternate short sentences with long, indirect discourse with direct quotations, etc. Begin a sentence now and then with a predicate modifier, so as to break the monotony of the regular order of arrangement. Occasionally introduce a very short sentence. This variety rests the reader, so that he can more easily take in the meaning.

5. Avoid worn quotations, such as, "Distance lends enchantment", "a host of friends", "a thing of beauty is a joy forever", "fair women and brave men", "own the soft impeachment", etc. While good in their place, they have lost their fragrance by excessive use.

6. Avoid superfluous words, such as those in parenthesis in the following sentences: "Iron sinks (down) in water"; "They united (together) to form a clique"; "I shall finish by the (latter) end of the week"; "Before I go I must (first) be paid"; "She was approved (of) by everybody"; "I have (got) a headache"; "The balloon rose (up) rapidly"; "My brother and I (both) took a walk (together)"; "He came in last (of all)."

7. Some persons seem to think they get elevation of style by cultivating big words. Effectiveness is gained by cultivating simple words, especially those that are most natural. Don't say "retire" when it is more natural to say "go to bed", "one of our citizens" when you mean simply "a neighbor," "we have assembled here"

when it is more natural to say "we have come here", "obliterate" for "destroy", "rendition" when you mean "rendering," etc. In describing a school play ground it is much more effective to call "boys" "boys" rather than "immature masculinity", "marbles" by their right name rather than "whirling spheres", "walking" just "walking" and not "promenading", etc.

In conclusion let me say that we should avoid both extremes, excessive freedom and looseness in the use of language, and excessive elevation and snobbish affectation. Colloquial language is good to use in conversation, and slang is always justifiable if it helps to make the meaning clearer or express it more forcefully, though the writer should always show that he knows the word is slang by inclosing it in quotation marks.

WORDS OFTEN USED INCORRECTLY.

A should be repeated for every individual. "A black and white horse" means one horse, "A black and a white horse" means two.

Superfluous in "What kind of a boat is this?"

Ability—capacity. He has ability to do something, capacity to receive knowledge.

Above. Say "The preceding", not "The above" or "The above mentioned". "More than a hundred were killed," not "Above a hundred."

Accept. We accept a thing, but not *of* a thing.

Acceptance—acceptation. "Acceptance" used of a gift, "acceptation" of the sense in which a word or the like is used.

Accredit—credit. We "accredit" a man by

giving him letters of credit or credentials, but "credit" what he says, that is, believe him.

Affect. He is affected by the disease, but the medicine effects a cure. He affects elegance.

Afraid. "I am afraid I can't go" is more colloquial than "I fear I can't", but not wrong.

Afterwards. Not distinguished from "afterward" except on the ground of euphony.

Aggravate. He irritates me, not aggravates.

Ain't. No such word in the English language. There is no abbreviation for "Am I not?"

Alike. These pictures are alike, or the same, but not "both alike" (tautology).

All of. Better to say "I have it all" than "all of it".

Allege. Overworked by newspaper writers who try to avoid libel. It is unnecessary to say "The fish was alleged to be ten feet long".

Alternative. Choice between two. We should not say he had three alternatives (courses) open, or speak of "other alternatives".

Allusion—illusion. We make an "allusion" to some passage in the Bible; a magic lantern creates an "illusion".

Among—between. We say "between two", "among several".

Among one another. Absurd. Say "Among themselves".

An. Euphoniously used before aspirated h only when the accent is on a following syllable. Say "a hero", "a history", but "an historical", "an

habitual". Only Englishmen say "an European", "an unique", etc. "A historical" is quite correct.

And. "Come and see me" for "Come to see me", though a well established idiom, is criticised by many. Do not say "and which" unless there is a preceding "which" for the "and" to correct with, since "which" means "and he" or "and it".

And so forth—etc.—and the like. "Etc." is an abbreviation for the Latin "et cetera", meaning "and others". In giving a list we may give several items and add "etc.", indicating that there are others not given. When we speak of a man's doing this, or that, or the other, we should not tack "etc." (and others) on the end, but say in English—"and so forth". If we are speaking of this thing and that thing, and the other thing, and wish to suggest other similar things, we should not say "etc." ("and others of the same kind"), nor "and so forth" (used only of actions), but "and the like" ("others of a similar kind"). The sign "&c." is a mongrel not to be used in literary English, since the "&" is English and the "c" is Latin.

Anticipate. Say "I expect to go to Europe", not "I anticipate going". Correct: "His discovery had been anticipated", that is, "made before", not "looked forward to".

Anybody else's. Idiomatic, and preferred to "anybody's else".

Anyhow. A vulgarism never to be used.

Apprehend—comprehend. We first apprehend, and when we know it all we comprehend.

Apt. He may be "apt" in his lessons, but "likely" or "liable" to get into trouble, not "apt" to get into trouble.

Arise—rise. Use "arise" in a figurative sense, as "Trouble arose", while "rise" is used for actual rising, as "The sun rose". Choice between these words is, however, largely a matter of euphony.

As. Say, "He is as good as I", but "He is not so well known as I am"—"as," in affirmative sentences, "so" in negative. Say "I don't know that it is so", not "I don't know as it is so".

Assay—essay. We "assay" ore to find out exactly how much gold it contains, but "essay" or attempt any task.

As though. Idiomatic for "as if", though condemned.

At—in. We "arrive at" a point or small place, but "in" a country or large city. Also we "live at" a small town, but "in" a city.

Audience. People who hear, not sight-seers. A horse-show is held in a "spectatorium", not an "auditorium".

Authoress. Vulgar and unnecessary.

Avenge—revenge. We "avenge" wrong done to others, "revenge" wrong done to ourselves.

Avocation—vocation. "Vocation" is main calling; "avocation", side calling. "Authorship was his avocation, not his vocation."

Awful. Be sure you mean "awe-inspiring" when you use "awful"—avoid "awful nice".

A while since. Say "a while ago".

Backward. Not distinguished from "backwards" except on the ground of euphony.

Back of. Not in good use.

Balance. That which balances, not the rest. "The rest of us went on," not "the balance of us".

Beg to acknowledge. Over-used and incorrect in letter writing.

Beside—besides. "Beside" means "by the side of", "besides" means "in addition to". "Beside the bonnie brier bush", "Besides his titles he has money".

Between. Say "between two", "among three or more".

Blame it on. A vulgarism.

Both. When "both—and" are used, be sure they connect the right words. "He likes both tea and coffee", not "He both likes tea and coffee". "Both" is superfluous in "They both resemble each other". Look out for "both" in negative sentences, as "Both were not found" for "Only one was found".

Bound. "He is determined to do it" better than "He is bound to do it".

Bring—fetch—carry. We "bring to", "carry away", and "fetch" (go and bring).

But. "I do not doubt that he will do it", not "but he will do it". "I do not know but that it is so", not "I do not know but what". "Every one but her", not "but she", since "but" is a preposition here.

Bulk. Not the best usage for "greater part", as "The bulk of the work is done".

By. A thing is said to be done "by" a person

"with" an instrument. "The house was filled with people", not "by". "I know of a man of the name of Brown", not "by the name of Brown" if that is his real name, though you may know him by that name if his name is really Smith.

Calculate. Don't say "I calculate it is so", for no calculation is involved.

Cherubim. Plural of "cherub"; "cherubs" is also correct.

Childish. Use "childlike" in a good sense, "childish" in a derogatory sense.

Claim. Do not say, "I claim that I can do more work than he", though you may say "I claim the money for the work".

Clever does not mean "good-natured".

Compare with—compare to. When we compare one thing with another we note the points of likeness and difference. We compare one thing to another when we wish to show that the first is like the second, as in "He compared the earth to an apple whirling on a knitting needle".

Complement — compliment. "Complement" with an e in the middle means a full or complete quantity; "compliment" is something we pay to those we admire.

Congregate together. "Congregate" means "come together", so "together" is superfluous.

Continue on. "On" is superfluous.

Continual—continuous. "Continuous" means uninterrupted, "continual" means keeping on even though interrupted. "The performance was

continuous"; "It rains continually" (even if it stops now and then).

Co-operate together. "Together" is superfluous.

Corporeal—corporal. A "corporal" is the lowest army officer, "corporeal" means pertaining to the body; but we speak of "corporal punishment".

Council—counsel. "Council" is a body of persons gathered to consult, as the "city council", "counsel" is either advice or a person, such as a lawyer, engaged to give advice.

Creditable—credible. Entirely different words. "Creditable" means worthy of approbation, "credible" means worthy of belief.

Custom—habit. The frequent repetition of an act is spoken of as a "custom", and this repetition leads in the end to an involuntary "habit".

Demean means to conduct oneself, not to lower or debase.

Despite. You may say "in spite of" but not "in despite of". Right: "Despite the opposition, the bill went through".

Die. We die *of* a disease, not "with" or "from".

Differ. The correct preposition after "differ" is "from". "Different than" is absolutely wrong. In England many people say "different to", but not careful writers.

Directly. Often misused in England for "as soon as", as in "Directly we arrived we heard the news".

Dirt means filth, but "a dirt road" is a recognized colloquial substitute for "an earth road".

Disagree. Usually to be followed by "with" rather than "from" or "to".

Disposition. Articles are placed at your "disposal", not at your "disposition".

Disremember. Obsolete.

Divers—diverse. "Divers" means several, various; "diverse" means very unlike.

Don't. Used only after a plural subject. Say "John does n't".

Dozen. Use "dozen" for the plural when a number precedes it, as "three dozen eggs"; use "dozens" when other words precede, as "several dozens of eggs".

Drank. "I drank", but "I have drunk".

Dress—gown. "Gown" is old-fashioned usage for "dress" (outer garments worn by men or women), while now "gown" is used to mean a woman's night-dress.

Each other. Proper applied to two only, "one another" to several.

Egoist—egotist (egotism—egoism). Descartes' followers were called "egoists" because the foundation of their philosophy was the "ego". "Egoism" is used in a philosophic or good sense, "egotism" is a bad sense.

Effect—affect. See "Affect".

Either. One of two. In speaking of several use "any" or "any one". The same rule applies to "neither".

Elegant. Do not overwork this word.

Elicit—illicit. An investigating committee "elicits" information concerning "illicit" transactions.

Else. We say "Nothing else than crime", not "No one else *but* me".

Emigrant—immigrant. "Em" means "out of", so any one going out of a country is an "emigrant", any one coming into a country is called an "immigrant".

Enclose—Inclose. Both right—stick to one.

Enjoy bad health. Ridiculous.

Enthuse. Not in good use.

Equally as well. One word is superfluous. Say "equally well" or "as well".

Equanimity of mind. Tautological. Omit "of mind", for that is included in "equanimity" (Latin "animus", mind).

Esquire. In United States after names of lawyers. Always used in writing to a "gentleman" in England, "Mr." for tradespeople, etc.

Every. Each or all taken separately, constituting a subject singular. Improperly used in "every confidence".

Everywheres. No such word.

Except. Improperly used for "unless", as in "He cannot come here unless (not except) he will obey the rules".

Excise. Internal revenue tax, not tariff on foreign importations; not applicable to licensing or tax-collecting bodies.

Expect. Improper to say "I expect he did it", for one cannot expect backward. Say "I suspect he did it". "I expect him"—look forward to his coming—is correct.

Farther—further. Better to distinguish by using "farther" of distance, as in "He went

farther"; and "further" in the sense of something additional, as "He said nothing further."

Female. Improperly used for "woman". Properly it includes animals as well as human beings.

Fetch. See "Bring".

Final completion. An absurd tautology. A "completion" is "final".

Financial. Distinguish carefully from "pecuniary", "monetary", etc. Use "financial" only of large money systems. Say, "It was a pecuniary obligation" (not "financial").

Fire. Does not mean "throw".

Firstly. Improperly used for "first", even with "secondly", etc. "Firstly" has now become practically obsolete.

Fix. Vulgarly used for "arrange", as "fix the furniture".

Flock. How to choose the correct word to indicate a collection of objects has been expressed as follows: "A flock of girls is called a bevy; a bevy of wolves is called a pack; a pack of thieves is called a gang; a gang of angels, a host; a host of porpoises, a shoal; a shoal of buffalo, a herd; a herd of children, a troop; a troop of partridges, a covey; a covey of beauties, a galaxy; a galaxy of ruffians, a horde; a horde of rubbish, a heap; a heap of oxen, a drove; a drove of blackguards, a mob; a mob of whales, a school; a school of worshipers, a congregation; a congregation of engineers, a corps; a corps of robbers, a band; a band of locusts, a swarm; a swarm of people, a crowd; a crowd of birds, a flock."

Former—latter. To be avoided when possible, as these words tend to weaken a sentence.

Forward. Not distinguished from "forwards", except on the ground of euphony.

Friend—acquaintance. "Friends" are few, discovered only in time of need; "acquaintances" are many, and this is usually the right word to apply to the persons one knows.

Generally. Distinguish carefully from "usually", "frequently", and "commonly". "It is commonly said" (not "generally"); "He usually went to business at nine" (not "generally"); "It is generally true that careful eaters live long."

Gender. A few English words have a masculine and a feminine form, and to avoid confusion they should be studied carefully.

Masc.	Fem.
abbot	abbess
actor	actress
bachelor	spinster
buck	doe
bullock	heifer
czar	czarina
drake	duck
duke	duchess
earl	countess
Francis	Frances
gander	goose
hero	heroine
lion	lioness
marquis (quess)	marchioness
monk	nun
ram	ewe

Masc.	Fem.
stag, hart	hind
sultan	sultana
tiger	tigress
wizard	witch.

"Authoress," "poetess," etc., are not recognized as good words, "author," "poet" including both sexes.

Gentleman. Not to be used for "man." "That man (not 'gentleman') over there will put your coal into the cellar." The abbreviation "gent" is extremely vulgar.

Got. This word (considered preferable to "gotten" as a past participle) is properly used when the act of getting precedes possession. "I have got a book" means "I have got it and so I have it." It would be ridiculous to say "The birds of the air have got nests," for they did not go and get them, or, at least, we mean to state only that they "have them."

Graduated. Purists say "was graduated at a school". "He graduated from" is well established.

Grammatical errors. Said to be incorrect, like "bad grammar," etc., since grammar is defined as "the act of writing and speaking correctly", and there cannot be a bad science or art of writing correctly. And there is nothing grammatical about an error.

These distinctions are absurd. Grammar is the science of the relationship of words in a sentence, and there is as much bad grammar as bad chemistry or logic. "Grammatical errors" are "errors of grammar," not "in grammar".

Guess. Improperly used for "think," except in colloquial interchange, when we mean "I am inclined to think."

Had have. Never correct, though good writers say "Had I have known it".

Had ought. Never correct, though many educated people will say, "I ought not to do that, had I?" (that is "had I ought?"). Say "Ought I?"

Had rather. Said to be an error for "would rather", but now well established in good usage. The same is true of "had better" for "would better".

Handy. A man is handy with his tools, but a grocery near by should not be called "handy".

Hanged. A man is "hanged" on the gallows, not "hung". "I'll be hanged if I do" is correct.

Hardly. "I can hardly believe it", not "I can't hardly".

Healthy—wholesome. Onions are "wholesome" (not "healthy"). A man is "healthy" if he eats "wholesome" food. It is proper to say "It is a healthy or healthful climate," but "healthful" is the better word.

Hence means "from here", so "from hence" is wrong (used in Bible, but now obsolete).

How means "in what manner". Incorrect to say "I have heard how in Japan they are fond of drinking tea" (should be "that").

However. Say, "How could you do it!" not "However could you do it!"

Human—Humane. Whatever pertains to mankind is "human", but a "humane" person is compassionate.

Hurry. Properly does not mean simply to "make haste", but it would be pedantic to say "Hasten, Johnny" instead of "Hurry", which is supposed to imply "disordered haste".

Ice-cream. Formerly condemned, but now recognized. Likewise "ice-water" or "iced water".

Idea. Not to be used for "opinion", as in "I have an idea you are wrong." Say "I think you are wrong."

Illy. No such word.

Immodest. Not to be confused with "indecent" and "indelicate". "Modesty" applies to manners, "decency" to externals, and is the stronger word.

In—into. "Into" indicates motion, "in" rest in a place. "I saw him go into the house" (not "in the house"). "Go in" is correct, since here "in" is an adverb, and there is no adverb "into", but "Go in the house" is not correct.

In—on. "An accident happened in Downing street," but "I live on Chestnut street." "On" is more general, applying to location only. The English say "I live in Chestnut street", implying that the houses on either side are included in the street, while they reserve "on the street" for references to beggars, prostitutes, etc.

In respect to. Never say "in respect of".

Individual. Not properly used to mean "person", as "I cannot bear that individual". We speak properly of "individuals and communities".

Invent—discover. We "invent" some contrivance that never existed before, or may even invent a name, but we "discover" that which al-

ready exists and which we have only to find, as a new country.

Involve—implicate. "Implicate" implies crime, "involve" has no such suggestion.

Is being. Condemned by some grammarians. Say, "The house is building" and not "The house is being built". I prefer the latter. "Is growing" means activity from within, "is being grown" activity from without.

Its—it's. The possessive pronoun is "its", while "it's" is an abbreviation of "it is".

Jug. What an American calls a "pitcher" an Englishman calls a "jug".

Kind of. Do not say "What kind of *a* book is this?" See "A".

Lady. "Woman" is to be preferred in ordinary cases. "Saleslady" is ridiculous.

Lay—lie. These are two entirely different verbs, though often confused, because the past tense of "lie" is "lay". The past tense and past participle of "lay" are "laid", the past participle of "lie" is "lain". "Lay" must always have an object, "lie" never does have one. Say "He lies down", "He lays the book down"; "He lay down"; "He laid the book down"; "He was laid away in the grave"; "He has lain all night on the ground".

Learn—teach. A person "learns", a teacher "teaches" him, but cannot "learn him", as the ignorant say.

Lengthways — sideways — endways. Better "lengthwise", "sidewise", and "endwise".

Lengthy—long. "Lengthy" is said to have originated in the United States, and it is proper if used of writing or discourses, but should not be used for "long" in such ordinary phrases as "It is a long ride up there" (not "lengthy").

Less. Do not confuse with "fewer". Say "less meat", "fewer men" (not "less men").

Liable. Not to be used except when there is liability. "Where shall I be likely to find some beans?" (not "liable to find").

Light-complected. No such word.

Like. A verb should not be used after "like", making it a conjunction. Say, "He acts as you do" (not "like you do"). This use of "like" as a conjunction is very common in the South. Say "He looks like me" (not "like I do").

Likely. See "Apt".

Lit. Obsolete. Say "Have you lighted the lamp?" (not "lit the lamp").

Loan—lend. "Loan" as a verb should not be substituted for "lend". "Lend me a dollar", not "Loan me a dollar". See also "Mistakes of the Purists", page 81.

Locate does not mean "settle" (an Americanism in this sense). Say "He settled at Big Creek, Nebraska", not "He located", nor "Where are you located?"

Look is followed by an adjective, not an adverb. Say "You look bad" (not "badly"), "You look beautiful" (not "beautifully").

Lots. A "lot" is a certain amount or collection allotted or set aside. Do not use it to mean "a great deal". Say, "He has made me a great

deal of trouble" (not "lots of trouble" or "a lot of trouble").

..**Loud.** It is more idiomatic to say "Don't talk so loud" rather than "so loudly".

Love—like. We "love" our dear ones, but not "iced cream". Use "like" in cases of mere preference.

Lovely. Does not mean everything that an adjective can. Young ladies, especially, should give other words a chance.

Luggage—baggage. In England a man's "baggage" on a railroad train or the like is spoken of as his "luggage".

Lunch. Not so refined as "luncheon". Say "Take luncheon with me" rather than "Take lunch", except to everyday friends.

Luxurious—luxuriant. The first of these words means pertaining to luxury, the second, rank in growth. We speak of a luxurious couch, a luxuriant garden.

Mad. In England this word means crazy, not angry.

Majority—plurality. In U. S. politics, a candidate for office does not have a "majority" unless he has more than half of all the votes cast, and his majority is his excess over all others; his "plurality" is his excess over the next highest. This distinction is not made in England, where there are seldom more than two candidates.

Make a visit. Condemned by some as a misusage for "pay a visit".

Married. "Got married" is a vulgarism. It is

not worth while to dispute over whether Sally married John, or John, Sally, or if we ought not to say "they were married".

May—can. In asking permission, say, "May I assist you?" not "Can I assist you?" "May I go out, mama?" not "Can I go out?" "Though we may say a horse, we cannot say a ox" (not "may not" because of the negative).

Means. Singular or plural.

Memorandum. Singular. The plural is "memoranda", though "memorandums" is allowable. Do not say "have this memoranda" but "memorandum".

Middling. Not an adverb. "How are you?" "Middling" (well) is wrong.

Mighty does not mean very. Do not say, "It is mighty hard".

Mistaken. "You are mistaken" for "You mistake" is a well established idiom, though condemned by some.

Modest. Not to be used for "bashful" or "diffident", for a person may properly be "modest" without sacrificing self-respect or self-possession.

More perfect. What is "perfect" cannot be "more perfect". Say, "more nearly perfect".

Most. Not to be used for "almost", as in "He comes here 'most (almost) every day".

Mutual. Condemned by many when used for "common". John and James may have a mutual aversion, that is, a reciprocal aversion, but a friend of both is a "common friend", not a

"mutual friend", in spite of the title of Dickens's book, "Our Mutual Friend".

Muchly. A vulgarism.

Myself. Not to be used except to intensify, as in "John and myself will attend to it" (should be "John and I").

Nasty. A titled English woman is said to have remarked to a gentleman at her side, "Try this soup; it is n't half nasty". The English "nasty" and the American "nice" are on a par.

Née (born) is feminine, **né** masculine.

Neither—nor. Be careful where you place the first. "He would give us neither oil nor wine" (not "neither give us". It should come just before the thing excluded).

Never. Objectionable as an intensive form of "not", as in "I never said such a thing".

New beginner. Tautological. All beginners are new.

News. Singular, say, "This news is terrible".

Nice. Much overworked in the United States. It properly means with delicate precision, as in "a nice use of words".

Nicely. Not to be used for "well", as in "How are you?" "Nicely", or "That shawl will do very nicely".

No. Idiomatic, though condemned, in "whether or no", "no less than twenty", etc.

Nowhere near. Not proper.

None may be treated as plural as well as singular, as in "None were left, not one".

Not is to be correlated with "nor" when the negation does not properly extend over both of-

jects compared. Say, "He does not come here, nor do I ever see him", but "He does not give me money or clothes".

Not—but only. Be careful where the "not" is placed. "He pretended, not that he had had a college education, but only a high school training" (not "He did not pretend, . . but only that").

Nothing like. Not to be used for "not nearly" as in "She is nothing like as pretty as I thought" (should be "not nearly so pretty"—two errors).

Nouns. In many cases verbal nouns or infinitives are more correct and effective than regular nouns. For "It tends to the elimination of the weak and the preservation of the strong" say "It tends to eliminate the weak and preserve the strong." For "He objected to the house being built on that lot", say "He objected to building the house on that lot" or "to having the house built on that lot".

No use. It is better to say "of no use" in such sentences as "It is no use for me to speak to him".

Number. "A number of men" may be treated as plural and followed by a plural verb, as "a few men" would be, or "a great many men", though purists condemn the usage and say that "a number of men" must always be treated as singular.

Observation — observance. An astronomer makes an "observation" by looking at the stars; but the "observance" or keeping of Lent is another matter.

O—oh. Formerly there was no distinction be-

tween these words. Now careful speakers use "oh" as a simple exclamation and follow it by an exclamation point, which is placed either after it or at the end of the sentence, while "O" is used in addresses, as "O grave, where is thy victory?" "Oh, no, I hardly think so!" "Oh, I would n't do that!" "O" is always written as a capital, "oh" is written with a small letter when it comes in the middle of a sentence.

Observe. It is better not to use this word in the sense of "say", as in "What did you observe?"

Of all others. An absurdity for "above all others" or "of all", since "others" excludes the very object spoken of.

Of any. Not to be used for "of all", as in "largest of any I have seen" though "larger than any" is correct.

Off of. A vulgarism. Omit one or the other.

Often. Say "oftener", "oftenest", rather than "more often", "most often".

Older—elder. "The elder son is older than his brother by only a year".

On. Say "by subscription", not "on subscription". Americans seem very fond of using "on".

On to. Properly two words, with the meaning "on" and "to", and never to be treated as a single preposition "onto". In many if not most cases the "to" may properly be omitted, as in "He climbed on a chair" (not "onto a chair"). Purists condemn "on to" in any form.

One. We may say, "If you like fishing, you will find Oak Creek very good" or "If one likes

fishing, Oak Creek will be found very good". The indefinite "one" has the more refined air in most cases. There is authority for using "his" for the possessive "one's", as in "One may shave his face or grow a beard as he chooses", or "as one chooses".

Only. This word is often misplaced in the sentence. It should come directly before the word it qualifies, as in "He had only five cents left", not "He only had five cents". But see "Mistakes of the Purists," page 81.

Oral—verbal. That which is uttered by word of mouth is "oral". Anything, written or spoken in words, is "verbal", though we often hear people speak of sending a "verbal message" when they mean "an oral message".

Other. Should not be omitted in such sentences as "Is there any other boy in school whose record is as high as Willie's" (not "Is there any boy in school", for that would include "Willie").

Ought. Not to be preceded by "had". Say, "I ought not to do that, ought I?" (not "had I?")

Over. Objectionable when used for "more than", as in "It is over a yard long".

Overalls. This it not "overhalls".

Overflown. Incorrect for "overflowed", for we do not say "The river had not flown in that channel always".

Own. Does not mean "confess", "admit", as in "He owned he took it". Say, "He admitted he took it".

Pairs. Use "pair" for the plural when a number precedes it, as "three pair of boots"; use "pairs" when other words precede, as "several pairs of boots".

Pants. Vulgar for "pantaloons" or "trousers". "Trousers" is preferred.

Parenthesis. This is used either in a general sense, as in "words spoken in parenthesis", or to indicate the written marks at either end, when we may use the plural and say "enclosed in parentheses".

Party. A good legal term in the sense of "person", but not a good literary term in such sentences as "Give the other party a chance".

Past. Objectionable when used for "last", as in "He has called during the last few days" (not "past few days").

Pell-mell means "crowded together" or "mixed together", and so it is improper to apply it to one person, as in "He rushed pell-mell down the stairs".

Per. This is a Latin preposition, and properly applicable only to Latin nouns, as in "per capita", "per annum", "per diem", etc., and is not correctly used in "per head", "per year", "per day", in which the noun is English. Say "a head", "a year", "a day". "Per yard", "per barrel", etc., are, however, in universal use as commercial terms.

Perform. Young ladies do not, or should not, "perform" on the piano, violin, or guitar.

Permit—allow. "Permit" indicates formal consent, "allow" tacit consent.

Perpetually does not mean "continually", as in "You continually misuse 'per'" (not "perpetually misuse").

Phenomenon is singular, the plural being "phenomena". It is incorrect to speak of "this phenomena" (say "these phenomena", "this phenomenon").

Place. Improperly used for "where" in "Let us go some place to-night".

Plead. Say, "He pleaded guilty" (not "pled" or "plead").

Plenty. It is better to say that "food is plentiful", rather than "plenty". In "It is plenty good enough for me" plenty" is incorrectly used as an adverb. "Plenty" is a noun, and we may say "I have plenty of money" (but not "money is plenty", in which "plenty" is an adjective).

Plural. The plural of figures and words used as objects is formed by adding an apostrophe and s, as in the possessive, as "Mind your p's and q's"; "You have three *the's* in that sentence".

The plural of "cupful" is "cupfuls" (not "cupsful").

If the word is loosely compounded, however, and written with a hyphen or hyphens, add s to the principal part, as "sisters-in-law" (not "sister-in-laws"), "courts-martial" (not "court-martials"), "aides-de-camp" (not "aide-de-camps").

Names with titles are made plural by pluralizing either the title or the name and placing "the"

before the title, as "the Misses Smith" or "the Miss Smiths".

Some words have two plurals with different meanings:

brother—brothers (by birth), brethren (of a society);
die—dies (for stamping coins, etc.), dice (for play);
fish—fishes (separate fishes), fish (collectively);
index—indexes (for books), indices (to indicate powers of numbers);
penny—pennies (coins), pence (sum of money);
shot—shots (discharges), shot (small balls);
staff—staves (of a barrel or to walk with), staffs (of assistants).

Nouns of foreign origin sometimes retain the plural of the language from which they were taken. Look out for these:

alumnus (man)—alumni;
alumna (woman)—alumnae;
analysis—analyses;
bacterium—bacteria;
beau—beaux or beaus;
cherub—cherubim or cherubs;
crisis—crises;
curriculum—curricula;
datum—data;
genus—genera;
genius—genii (spirits), geniuses (talented persons);

hypothesis—hypotheses;
oasis—oases;
parenthesis—parentheses;
phenomenon—phenomena;
seraph—saraphim or seraphs;
stratum—strata;
tableau—tableaux or tableaus;
thesis—theses.

Politics. Singular. Say, "Politics is his passion".

Portion. Not to be used for "part", as in "In what part of the country do you live?" (not "what portion"), since "portion" is a part assigned, apportioned.

Possessive. Be sure to put the apostrophe in the right place. Especially note the following: "For goodness' sake"; "Charles Dickens's name"; "My boys' clothes will fit your boys"; "That is my son-in-law's hat"; "The men's voices sounded sonorous". No apostrophe is required with possessive pronouns (its, his, theirs).

Post. Do not say "I am posted", meaning informed.

Practicable—practical. That which can be done is "practicable" (capable of being practised), and that which is more than theoretical is "practical", as a "practical man".

Predicate—predict. We "predict" what is to be, "predicate" what has been.

Prejudice—prepossess. We "prejudice" against, "prepossess" in favor of. It is incorrect to say, "He is prejudiced in your favor".

Present—introduce. A person is "presented" to (brought into the presence of) a superior, as one presented at court; but equals are "introduced" to each other, not presented to each other.

Preventive. Never write "preventative", for there is no such word.

Previous. Idiomatic to use this word as an adverb (previously), as in "He arrived previously to the receipt of your letter" (or "previous to the receipt").

Procure. Do not say "Where did you procure it?" when "get it" is all you mean.

Promise does not mean "assure", as in "I assure you I was surprised" (not "promise you I was surprised").

Proposal—proposition. We make a "proposal" to do something, but present a "proposition" for discussion.

Propose—purpose. We "propose" a plan, but "purpose" to do this or that. Say, "I purpose to show that he did all these things" (not "propose to show").

Proposition. Only in American business slang is a difficulty called a "proposition", as in "He had a hard proposition on his hands". We may say, "We have your proposition under consideration", though even here "proposal" would be better.

Proven. A Scotch legal term, not to be used for "proved". "He has proved his case" (not "proven his case").

Providing. Not to be used for the conjunction "provided", as in "I will go provided you supply the money" (not "providing you supply the money").

Quantity. Not to be used for "number", as in "What a number of figures you have on your slate!" (not "What a quantity").

Quit. Not to be used for "stop", as it properly means leave, go away from. Do not say, "Quit your joking" when you mean simply "Stop your joking", though you may say "He quit the town" (that is, went away from it).

Quite. Commonly though not properly used for very, or the like, as in "quite a good deal of wood", "quite a long way", etc. "Quite" means entirely, as in "The pitcher is quite full", "She is quite the lady", etc.

Railroad depot. Properly a "depot" is a place to store goods, not a station where people may enter and leave trains of cars. In the latter sense it is common in the United States, though not in England, where the word "station" is used.

Railway. Same as "railroad", and preferred by Englishmen.

Raise—rise. These are two entirely different verbs not to be confused. "Rise" never takes an object, "raise" always does. Say, "He raised the flag-pole", "See the flag-pole rise"; "He rose in the morning at eight"; "Rise up" (not "Raise up") "a moment".

Raise. We "rear" children, do not "raise" them. We speak of a "raise of pay".

Rarely. Say, "It is very rarely that we find so white a diamond", not "It is very rare".

Real. Do not speak of a thing as "real nice". "Really fine", "really attractive" etc., show the correct form.

Receipt—recipe. "Receipt" is preferred in speaking of a formula for making pastry, while "recipe" is used of a physician's prescription. The old idea that "receipt" means only the act of receiving is not well founded.

Relative. Considered better than "relation" in speaking of kindred or family connections, though Lamb uses "relation" in his essay on "Poor Relations".

Reliable. Condemned by some because it stands for "rely-on-able" and the "on" is left out, but in universal use.

Remember—recollect. Do not confuse. We "remember" without effort, spontaneously, we "recollect" by effort. Say, "I do not remember what was said", "I was trying to recollect what was said".

Rendition. Do not use this word for "rendering", as in "Melba's rendering of the music" (not "rendition").

Reside. A big word for "live".

Residence. A man acquires a "residence" in a place by living there a certain length of time; but it is better not to call his house his "residence".

Retire. Ordinary people prefer "going to bed"

to "retiring", saving that word for "retiring from the army", etc.

Reverend—honorable. Always say "the Rev. Mr. Blank", "the Hon. Emily Lawless", never omitting the "the". Likewise do not omit "Mr." after "Rev.", as in "the Rev. Smith", though we may say "the Rev. Hiram Smith".

Ride—drive. The English say we do "driving" in a carriage and "riding" on horseback.

Right. Not to be used for "ought", as in, "You had a right to tell me", meaning "You should have told me". It is correct to say "Sit right down" or "Go right to work".

Rubbers. The English prefer to call overshoes "gums" rather than "rubbers", as Americans do.

Rugged. This word in such a sentence as "Are you feeling pretty rugged this spring?" is said to be an Americanism. "Rugged" properly means "rough", as a "rugged oak".

Run. Do not say, "I run over to see you", but "ran over", though "I have run across to see you" is correct. The past tense is "ran", the past participle "run".

Same. Not properly used as a substitute for the pronoun "it", as in "Send us the watch and we will return the same to you as soon as possible". This is commercial jargon. "The same" is used properly when a noun is implied after it, as "It is the same that I am speaking of", meaning "the same book" or "the same story", or the like.

Saw. Do not say, "I never saw anything like

it" for "I have never seen anything like it", nor "I was never in Philadelphia" for "I have never been in Philadelphia", since the speaker implies that he is including all time up to the present.

Scared of. Not a correct substitute for "afraid of".

Scholar—pupil. Interchangeable, though custom perhaps leans toward the use of the more dignified "scholar" for older pupils.

Science means "systematized knowledge", and it is absurd to speak of a "scientific dog-fight", for animals act from instinct and not from knowledge or principles (which they have classified). "Art" means skill; so we speak of the "science of grammar" and "the art of writing correctly", that is, the system of rules is the science and the use of them is the art. I should call philology properly a "science", "English composition" an "art". "Butter-making" is certainly more an art than a science.

Score. Vulgarly used in such a sentence as "Paderewski scored his usual success".

Section. Used for part, as in "Your section of the country". "Section" is said to be a Westernism.

Seem—appear. Things "seem" to the mind, "appear" to the senses. "He appeared to be all right"; "This seems correct."

Seldom or never. Often miswritten "seldom or ever". "Seldom if ever" is proper.

Set—sit. These are two entirely different verbs. The past tense and past participle of

"set" are also "set". The past tense and past participle of "sit" are both "sat". Say, "Set the glass on the table" (something must always be set). "Sit down on the couch" ("sit" never takes an object). A hen "sits", though the sun "sets" (short for "settle", a different word from the transitive verb "set"). A coat "sits" well. They "sat" on the couch. We "set" out for Washington. The court "sits", and so does Congress. Say, "As cross as a sitting hen".

Settle. It is not the best usage to speak of "settling a bill", meaning to pay it, though we may "settle differences" and so "settle a disputed account" if there are differences to arrange.

Sewage—sewerage. The "sewage" is that which runs through the system of "sewerage".

Shall—will. "Shall" is used after "I" and "we" to express mere futurity, or prediction, "will" after "you", "he", "she", "it", "they", and all nouns and other pronouns.

But if the speaker exercises his will and states what he wishes or means to bring about, "shall" and "will" are used inversely, as in—

"We will go to town to-morrow" (are willing to go) "if you think best".

"You shall do it" (I will exercise my will to make you).

"They shall be there" (implying, "I will compel them to be there").

In questions, if "shall" or "will" is expected in the answer, the word expected should be used in the question:

"Shall you like this arrangement?" Answer, "I shall".

"Will you go?" Answer, "I will".

"Shall he be called?" Answer, "He shall be".

"Will he be at home?" Answer, "He will be there".

In indirect discourse, "shall" or "will" is used according as the speaker used one or the other in direct discourse.

"He says he shall go to the concert" (because he really said "I shall go").

"Will" cannot be used with the first person in an interrogative sentence, for no one can know one's own will but one's self.

"Shall I be late?" ("Will I be late?" is not sense).

"Should" and "would" follow the rules for "shall" and "will".

"I should like to know your father."

"You would do me a favor by repeating the word."

"Should you like to see her?" Answer, "I should".

"He said he should like to see her."

"Like", "be glad", etc., should never be preceded by "would" following the first person, since the very nature of these words preclude an exercise of will. Say, "I should be glad to hear from you"; "I shall take great pleasure in doing as you request"; "We should like to accommodate you if we could".

Shire means "county", so it is a duplication to

say "county of Yorkshire" instead of "county of York", "county of Berks", "county of Buckingham", etc.

Should. This word, in addition to its use as an auxiliary in expressing future action, may be employed to express obligation. It is not so strong as "ought". Say, "You ought to obey your mother", "You should go to see Booth in Hamlet".

Sick—ill. The English use "sick" as meaning "sick to the stomach", and "ill" for any other bodily indisposition. "Sick unto death" and "sick of a fever" are terms found in the Bible, showing that the American "sick" as a substitute for "ill" is the older usage.

Signature, over or under? It is the best form to say "under one's signature", not "over", though what is written is actually above the signature. "Under" is derived from the legal formula "under my hand and seal".

Since. Not to be used for "ago", as in "I attended a wedding not long ago" (not "not long since"); "I saw you once on the cars, some weeks ago" (not "some weeks since"). Since requires an object or clause after it, as "since then", "since I saw you", etc.

Since when. Incorrect for "since then" or "since what time?"

Single. Superfluous in such expressions as "not a single one", "not a single individual", unless great emphasis is desired which can be obtained in no other way.

Sir. The English title "Sir" must be followed by a Christian name, as "Sir Thomas" or "Sir Thomas Lipton", not "Sir Lipton".

Smart. Not correctly used to mean "clever", as in "That is a smart boy". Say, "That is a bright boy" or "a clever boy". "Smart set" is all right.

Smell of. "Of" is superfluous and should be omitted.

So. Required in place of "as" after a negative, as in "He is not so old as he looks", not "He is not as old as he looks".

Sobriquet should never be written "soubriquet".

Solicitude—solicitation. We feel "solicitude" or anxiety about our friends, but speak of the "solicitation" of funds for the church.

So much so. This expression is frequently used in cases in which the filling in of the ellipsis would result in manifest absurdity, as "He was very sick, so much so that a doctor had to be called" (that is, "so much sick"). Say, "He was very sick, so sick that", etc. "The crowd pushed frightfully, so much so that we were nearly crushed to death" (that is, "The crowd pushed so much frightfully that", etc.). The phrase is very seldom correctly used.

Some. Not to be used for "somewhat", as in "We are some happier than we were", "She is some better", "I think some of going to the country". In all cases substitute "somewhat".

"Something like this" is an idiomatic and correct expression.

Specialty—speciality. The latter is frequent in England and is the older form, though it has gone quite out of use in this country.

Splendid. At least do not speak of a "splendid cup of tea". The word means "having splendor", "bright and shining".

Standpoint. Condemned by some, though universally used. The purists substitute "point of view".

State. This word means "formally declare", "set down in writing". It is therefore undesirable to use it for "said" in such simple expressions as, "He stated he liked golf". "He stated his case fully to the court" gives a correct use of the word.

Stimulus—stimulant. "Stimulus" is any kind of "goad" that drives one to action; a "stimulant" is used only of a medical preparation which stimulates the body.

Stunt. Formerly condemned as a corrupt form of "stint" or "stent", but these are now becoming obsolete.

Stop. Formerly condemned, but now recognized in the sense of "stay", as in "Are you stopping at the Waldorf?"

Street. There is a notion in the United States that a street does not include the houses on either side, and hence the houses are said to be "on the street". They are properly "in the street", for the street includes the houses. "On the street" in England suggests living in the streets, as a beggar or prostitute.

Such. Not to be used for "so", as in "I have

never seen such a fine specimen before" (transposed this reads "I have never seen a specimen such fine before"). Say, "So fine a specimen before".

Such another. Say, "another such".

Sure. Incorrectly used for "surely" in such sentences as "Be here sure", which is better expressed by saying "Be sure to be here".

Sustain means to bear up under, and so it is undesirable to use it in the sense of "receive", as "Sustain an injury", "Sustain a setback", etc.

Taste of. Omit "of", which expresses nothing. "I tasted the cheese" says as much as "I tasted of the cheese". The same erroneous use of "of" is found in "smell of", "feel of", etc.

Teach. We "teach" a person, and he "learns". It is impossible for us to "learn him his lesson".

That. Not to be used for "so", as in "She was that pig-headed" (should be "so pig-headed").

Do not repeat "that" unnecessarily, as in "I think that, when all is said and done, (that) you will agree with me". When the intervening clauses are long, "that" is especially liable to be forgotten.

Not to be used for "such a", as in, "It had come to that point that I knew something must be done" (say "such a point that I knew").

That, which, who. It is said by some, with not much reason, that restrictive clauses are properly introduced by "that", explanatory clauses by "which" or "who". "The man that makes a million should retire"; "Johnson, who has made a million, should retire". This may be a good rule

in general, but only instinct, cultivated by long reading of the best authors, can be trusted wholly. A better rule is to use "that" when the relative is slighted or passed over rapidly, "who" and "which" when more formality is required.

The. Like "a", "the" must be repeated for every individual intended. "The Latin and Greek languages" should be "the Latin and the Greek languages".

Think for. "For" is superfluous in such sentences as "You will find it better than you think for". Omit "for" in all such cases.

Those kind. Since "kind" is singular, it should not be preceded by the plural "those". Say, "This kind" or "that kind". "That kind of apples is best", not "Those kind of apples are best".

Through. "I am through" (meaning "I have finished") is an incorrect use of "through", said to be an Americanism. It is hard to see why it should not be as good as "I am done", which is recognized as correct.

To. The sign of the infinitive ("to") should not be separated from its verb by an adverb, as in "to joyously recall the happy days of youth, to sorrowfully review the misfortunes of manhood". It is better to say "joyfully to recall the happy days of youth, sorrowfully to review the misfortunes of manhood". The "split infinitive", as this is called, is defended by many, and there are undoubtedly occasions when the meaning cannot be made entirely clear without placing the adverbial modifier between the infinitive and its "to";

but the construction is to be avoided when possible.

"To" is said to be improperly used for "at" in "I have been to the circus", "I have been to town", etc. In the latter case say "in town". It is not clear, however, that the idea of going is not present here sufficiently to justify "to".

"To" is superfluous in "Where are you going to?"

Toward—towards. Interchangeable, though "toward" is preferred. The same applies to "afterward", "onward", "upward", "forward", "backward", "earthward", etc.

Transpire. This word does not mean "happen", but "to become known" (*breathe through* the surrounding ignorance).

This is correct: "It transpired that Rockefeller did not control the company".

This is incorrect: "The wedding transpired last week".

Try experiments. Since "experiments" are "trials", it is said that it is tautological to speak of "trying an experiment" (instead of "making an experiment"). We say "learn a lesson", "think a thought", etc. Why not "try an experiment?"

Twice over. If we say a thing "twice", is that not as good as saying it "twice over"?

Ugly. In England "ugly" means only "not good-looking"; in this country it means also "bad-tempered" or "vicious".

Unbeknown—unbeknownst. No longer used by educated persons.

Underhanded. Incorrect for "underhand".

Understand about. Should be "know about", as in "Our people know all about this subject", (not "understand all about this subject").

Unique. This word properly means "the only one of its kind", hence "rare", "unusual". It is absurd to use a comparative or superlative with it, as in "This is the most unique spectacle I have ever seen".

United States. Singular. "The United States is", not "are".

Universally by all. To say "It is universally commended by all" is tautological. Omit "universally" or "by all".

Upwards of. It is not good usage to say "He has lived here upwards of a year".

Usage. Not to be confused with "use". Say, "I may remark concerning the use of either and neither" (not "the usage of either and neither").

Venal—venial. These two words are very different in meaning. A "venal" person is one ready to be sold, mercenary in the extreme; a "venial" fault is one that may be forgiven, slight, or unimportant comparatively speaking.

Veracity. Sometimes misused for "truth". "Veracity" means the quality of being truthful, and is applicable to persons, not to things. We speak of "the veracity of the witness" but not of "the veracity of the facts stated" (should be "truth of the facts").

Very. Not to be used before a verb as an intensive without "much" or the like after it.

Say "very much pleased", never "very pleased", "very much delighted", never "very delighted".

Vocation. See "Avocation".

Was. What is true at all times should be expressed by the present tense. Say "He said there is no God" (not, "there was no God").

Way. Not to be used for "away" as in "way down in Dixie".

Ways. Say "a great way off", not "a great ways".

Well. Some Americans begin nearly every sentence with the exclamation "well", as "Well, I don't know"; "Well, we'll see about it". Do you?

What. Not to be used for "that" in the phrase "but that". Don't say, "I don't know but what I would" (should be, "but that I would").

Whence means "from where", so "from" is superfluous in "from whence".

Whether. Use this word but once in such sentences as "Whether I decide to take up the option, or remain in my present position" (not "whether I decide, . . or whether I remain").

Who—whom. Many mistakes are made in the use of these pronouns, and errors seem almost unavoidable. It sounds pedantic to say, "Whom did you wish to see?" If you say, "Whom did you think it to be?" you are correct, "Who did you think it was?" is equally proper, and how can one know which form will be chosen when one is at the beginning of the sentence where "who" or "whom" must be decided on? We must do the best we can. There is no excuse for error

when we are writing, for we can go back and revise.

Whole of. Say "the entire audience", not "the whole of the audience," and especially "all the members," not "the whole of the members," "the whole of the English". "Whole" is to be used only when the object spoken of is a unit, as "the whole of the apple".

Whose. Some condemn the use of "whose" as the possessive of "which", but it is found in the best writers, as when Locke says, "Propositions of whose truth we have no certain knowledge".

Widowhood. There is authority for using this word in speaking of a man as well as of a woman.

Widow woman. All widows are women. Omit "woman". One might correctly say "widowed woman".

Will—would. See "Shall".

Without. This word is a preposition, the corresponding conjunction being "unless". Do not say "I shall starve without he gives me some money" (should be, "unless he gives me some money").

You was. Never to be used.

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